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ABSTRACT

This report reviews the past participation of young women in government-sponsored employment and training programs and identifies factors that are important in determining the probability of their participation in such programs. Using data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Young Americans, the study compares young women participants with their male counterparts, nonparticipants, and participants in alternative activities such as private and military training. First, an overview of the history and benefits of employment and training programs is provided. Then, factors affecting participation and participation experiences are identified and discussed. These include background and demographic variables, educational variables, family responsibilities and attitudes, financial needs and resources, work experience, and the nature of participation. Results of both cross-tabular analysis and multivariate data analysis are presented and, in conclusion, findings are summarized. Appendices include statistical tables that supplement those within the main portion of this document, a summary of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, and a copy of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act as amended in 1978. (KH)

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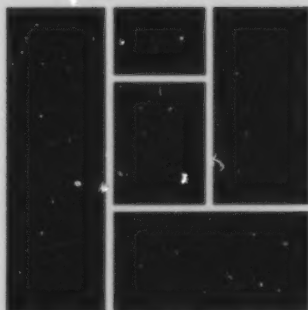
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Determinants of Youth Participation
in Employment and Training Programs
With a Special Focus on Young Women



**THE URBAN
INSTITUTE**

2100 M Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

Project Report

UD023498

Determinants of Youth Participation
in Employment and Training Programs
With a Special Focus on Young Women

Margaret C. Simms

and

M. Laurie Leitch

A Revised Report Submitted to
The Rockefeller Foundation

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The growth in the number of female-headed families and the "feminization" of poverty have drawn public attention to a long-standing problem--the lower earnings and limited career opportunities for women. We are not referring here to opportunities for women to become managers and executives, though movement into leadership positions is important. However, a more general policy interest exists in facilitating the movement of women into a broader range of blue collar and white collar professions.

Focus of this Study

This report examines only one avenue for women to increase their potential earnings and employment opportunities. Yet, it is an important avenue for young women who may have few other options open to them. The focus of this study is the participation of young women in government-sponsored employment and training programs. It is an important issue, for even though the Reagan administration and the Congress have reduced the size of government programs, they have proposed to target their remaining efforts on disadvantaged youth and welfare recipients. Since young women are a large proportion of both eligible groups it is crucial to examine their participation in past programs.

This study uses the National Longitudinal Survey of Young Americans (NLS--Borus) to determine the characteristics of young women who participate in government employment and training programs. They are compared with their male counterparts, with nonparticipants, and with participants in alternative activities such as private and military training.

Our work was designed to add to the existing knowledge on women's participation in employment and training programs. Previous studies have

taken note of the underrepresentation of women in many government programs but they differ from this study in two ways. First, most analysis has dealt exclusively with adult women (over age 22). Second, most have compared the characteristics of women who have participated in government employment and training programs with male participants, and not with nonparticipants. Moreover, while other studies have speculated on the causes of differential participation, this study uses a relatively new data base to test the importance of motivational factors that might affect the participation of women.

The study includes both cross-tabular and regression analysis. Several hypotheses were posed concerning factors affecting participation in government-sponsored programs. It was postulated that women's participation might be affected by their attitudes toward woman's role and by their own work expectations. Moreover, based on the work of others it was thought that women were less likely to participate in programs and that women participants were more qualified than their male counterparts. The data did not show any relationship between attitudes and women's participation, nor was educational attainment a factor in participation. There is some evidence from the regression analysis to indicate that being female reduces the probability of participating in government programs, even after controlling for other factors. The source of the differential cannot be clearly identified from the analysis.

The variables that were significant in explaining participation in government programs are consistent with a philosophy of "scraping"--serving the neediest individuals. And these variables appear to be the same for both men and women. The probability of participation is negatively related to

family income and socioeconomic status. It is positively correlated with prior enrollment in remedial education, number of periods of no work, number of months on welfare, and with being black or Hispanic.

Youth who participate in government programs are primarily enrolled in summer employment programs. Very few receive either skills training or support services. Although these young people may develop positive work habits and become more familiar with the world of work, they are getting very little in the way of occupational or skills training. In the short run, the major benefits would be income transfers and possibly decreased school dropout rates. An assessment of the possible long-run benefits of these programs is beyond the scope of this study.

INTRODUCTION

The lower earnings and more limited employment opportunities for women have negative consequences for these women and their families. This is particularly true when the woman is the primary source of economic support for the household. Government employment and training programs, which were focused primarily on male heads of household when they first started, are now being viewed increasingly as an avenue for improving the earnings and employment opportunities for women. This study reviews the past participation of women in government programs and identifies factors that are important in determining the probability of participating in employment and training programs.

The Growth in Female-Headed Families

During the past decade there has been a tremendous growth in the number and proportion of families that are headed by women. In 1970, 10.8 percent of all families were headed by women without husbands present.¹ By 1979 the proportion had reached 15 percent. These numbers differ significantly by race and ethnic group. Among white families, 12 percent were headed by women in 1979, up from 9.0 percent in 1970. Forty-one percent of all black families were headed by women and 20 percent of all Hispanic families were headed by women in 1979 as opposed to 28 and 15 percent, respectively, in 1970. While a substantial proportion of the growth in female-headed families can be attributed to divorce and separation, a significant share of the growth is

¹All figures are from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Families Maintained by Female Householders 1970-79, Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 107 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1980).

accounted for by an increase in the number of single women who have had children. Between 1970 and 1979 the number of female-headed families increased 51 percent, but the number headed by divorced women went up 123 percent and the number headed by never-married women increased 132 percent.

In 1979, almost half of the families in poverty were headed by women. Over one half of minority female-headed families were in poverty compared to one quarter of white female-headed families and 9 percent of all families. Adaptation to work is clearly an important determinant of poverty status for these women and their families. For those female-headed families where the householder did not work at all in 1979, 50 percent were in poverty; the poverty rate was 39 percent for those working part-year and 5 percent for those working full-time year-round. Stable employment is not, however, a viable option for many. Early childbearing, poor education, and limited work experience have left them either unprepared for work or with access only to jobs with low pay, yielding incomes below the level of possible welfare payments. Among those female heads in poverty who did work in 1979, 44 percent worked in service jobs, many as domestics.

The Importance of Early Employment Experiences

As the preceding discussion indicates, serious problems exist for women who head families, regardless of age. In this research effort, however, we have focused on the situation of young women. We have done so for a number of reasons. One of the most important reasons for concentrating on youth is related to the importance of early labor market experiences on lifetime labor force participation. Recent studies of the youth labor market indicate that unemployment among youth can have a deleterious effect on future employment

and earnings, especially for young women.² However, in the absence of intervention, many young women will not have favorable labor market experiences. This is especially true for black women since available statistics indicate that labor force and employment conditions for black teenage women have been deteriorating over the past 25 years.³

The early labor market experiences of young women are important not only because of their direct effect on long-run labor force participation but for their possible effects on childbearing patterns. If young women do not receive positive feedback from early efforts to obtain employment there is little incentive to postpone childbearing. Early childbearing can provide its own rewards since the young woman will have a child to love and to love her and if she does not marry she can receive income in the form of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). However, research has shown that early childbearing can decrease long-run economic well-being and increase the probability of welfare dependency. If childbearing can be delayed then, the economic position of the young women and any children she may eventually have to support will be improved.⁴

²Robert Taggart and Brian Linder, "Youth Employment Policy Background Material," in Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment, A Review of Youth Employment Problems, Programs, and Policies, vol. 2 (Washington, D.C., 1980).

³Ernst W. Stromsdorfer, "The Effectiveness of Youth Programs: An Analysis of the Historical Antecedents of Current Youth Initiatives," in Youth Employment and Public Policy, eds. Bernard E. Anderson and Isabel V. Sawhill (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1980); and David H. Swinton and Laurence C. Morse, "The Source of Minority Youth Employment Problems" (Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute, forthcoming).

⁴Kristin A. Moore, "Teenage Childbirth and Welfare Dependency," Family Planning Perspectives 10(4) (July/August 1978):233-35; and Sandra L. Hofferth and Kristin A. Moore, "Early Childbearing and Later Economic Well-Being," American Sociological Review 44 (October 1979):784-815.

THE ROLE OF EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

Employment and training programs can play a very important role in improving the employment and earnings position of women. These programs can provide work experience, employability and job skills, and, in some cases, immediate income. As a result, employment and earnings may increase immediately after participation in these programs. In addition, the programs may provide the incentives for young women to continue their formal education or enroll in private training programs or the military. This section of the paper briefly reviews the history of government-sponsored employment and training programs and reviews the recent literature on the characteristics of enrollees and the benefits they receive from participation in these programs.

The History of Government-Sponsored Employment and Training Programs

Federal government involvement in employment and training programs in the post World War II era began with the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (MDTA). The original focus of the program was to provide training to skilled workers who were displaced from their jobs as a result of automation. As time passed the focus shifted toward unskilled and low-skilled workers who were unable to earn sufficient income from employment to provide a decent standard of living for their families. Between 1962 and 1973 several federal programs and laws were enacted that modified and extended employment and training policy. These include the Economic Opportunity Act of 1967, the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP), the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS), and the Work Incentive Program (WIN) in 1967.

In 1973 the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) was passed to establish a single, comprehensive, local employment and training system to coordinate the numerous related programs. CETA has provided various

employment and training services to the economically disadvantaged since 1973. Classroom training, public service employment (PSE), work experience, on-the-job training (OJT), and direct job placement have been the major activities funded under CETA.

Government training programs specifically designed for youth began with the creation of the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the Job Corps in the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. When CETA was passed in 1973, most of the youth programs were included in this consolidation. In 1977 the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) was passed adding additional programs targeted on youth.⁵

In the 1978 reauthorization of CETA an attempt was made to direct the efforts of prime sponsors toward providing appropriate activities for more economically disadvantaged individuals. Eligibility criteria were tightened and sponsors were required to outline the appropriate training for each participant; work experience for people in need of work habit and employability skills, classroom training for remedial work, occupational training for people with a reasonable expectation of employment in the field, and on-the-job training for those needing a combination of skills and work experience.

Youth have participated in the full range of employment and training programs available. Between 1975 and 1980 they constituted between 48 and 62 percent of all enrollees in CETA Title I (work experience, training, counseling, and other services) and over 20 percent of enrollees in Titles II and VI (public service employment). They were approximately 15 percent of all

⁵See Appendix B for a description of CETA programs and figures on youth enrollment and program expenditures.

enrollees in WIN, the employment and training program specifically for AFDC recipients. In addition, youth programs enrolled over 9 million young people between 1975 and 1980.⁶

These programs were very important for the short-run employment position of youth. For example, employment and training programs provided 44 percent of the jobs held by blacks between the ages of 16 and 19 in 1978. Moreover, they were the source of all of the growth in employment for minority group youth between 1977 and 1979.⁷

CEITA expired at the end of FY 1982. It is being replaced by the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). The service delivery system has been modified and more emphasis has been placed on training and private sector placement as opposed to public sector employment. Local service areas will be larger and state governments will be more directly involved in the programs. However, there have been only minimal changes in the types of services offered and the types of participants served. Forty percent of the training participants under Title II-A will be youth. Summer Youth Employment (Title II-B) and Job Corps will continue as separate programs. Consequently, an analysis of youth participation in employment and training programs in the recent past is important for the development of new programs.

Participation in Employment and Training Programs

Participation in government-sponsored employment and training programs is a function of the demand for the services and the supply of program slots.

⁶Lynn C. Burbridge, "Employment and Training Programs for Youth: An Interpretation and Synthesis of Measured Outcomes" (Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute, forthcoming).

⁷Robert Taggart, Speech delivered at American Association for the Advancement of Science Seminar on Youth Unemployment, July 1982.

Enrollment in these programs is not compulsory. Therefore, the universe of individuals from which program sponsors can select enrollees is determined by the applicant pool. The type of individuals who apply for these programs may be a function of information on program availability, desire for training, expectations about future labor market activity, and assessments of the value of program participation.

Since there are more individuals eligible for government employment and training programs than there are slots available, it is thought that program sponsors are able to choose applicants according to criteria that are developed locally.⁸ In fact, two hypotheses have been formulated to explain possible selection processes. The first would be "scraping," where the sponsor selects the most "needy" individuals, those with the lowest incomes and lowest educational and job skill levels. This approach would be used if the sponsor felt that these individuals would be least likely to obtain employment without assistance and that they would be unlikely to obtain training and job services elsewhere. While this approach has great appeal from an equity standpoint, many would argue that this approach would not be optimal when resources are limited because too many resources would have to be expended to make these individuals "job ready."⁹

The alternative hypothesis to explain program sponsor behavior puts the emphasis on job readiness. In this hypothesis sponsors engage in "creaming" because of the pressure to achieve results. In "creaming" the sponsor selects

⁸Eli Ginsberg, ed., Employing the Unemployed (New York: Basic Books, 1980), p. 16.

⁹National Commission for Manpower Policy, CETA: An Analysis of the Issues (Washington, D.C., 1978).

those applicants who, in the sponsor's view, require relatively little additional treatment. These individuals will be comparatively easy to place in jobs and will be most likely to fulfill other program objectives (school completion, etc.). In fact, evidence seems to indicate that creaming has been the approach used in many programs.¹⁰

At issue here are the factors that affect individual application rates and the factors that program sponsors use to determine "suitability" for program participation. For example, do application rates differ by race and sex, independent of other factors? Are there systematic differences in knowledge about program availability? Are these related to outreach and targeting measures used by program sponsors? Are race, gender, or welfare dependency viewed by program sponsors as indicators of probable program failure? Are these factors used to discount other variables such as educational and employment history? That is, do sponsors set higher educational standards for women than for men? Does gender or race affect the program activity to which people are assigned?

There is a growing body of literature on the characteristics of enrollees in employment and training programs that seems to indicate that gender and race do affect participation levels and program assignment. Although the vast majority of it reviews adult participation in programs, it is relevant to the discussion of the way in which young women are treated.

¹⁰Sharon L. Harlan, Sex Differences in Access to Federal Employment and Training Resources Under CETA: An Overview, Working Paper No. 58 (Wellesley: Wellesley Center for Research on Women, 1980); and Ann Richardson, Youth in the WIN Program: Report on a Survey of Client Backgrounds, Program Experience, and Subsequent Labor Force Participation, Report No. 0083-3 (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, 1975).

Studies of participation in employment and training programs by women indicate that they have not been treated equally over the history of these programs, but their participation has increased in recent years. Between FY 1965 and FY 1978 women were less than one half of program participants. In FY 1978 women were 45 percent of enrollees in locally operated programs. By the last quarter of FY 1979, women were more than 50 percent of enrollees in all local programs except on-the-job training.¹¹ Among youth programs, women have fared somewhat better but have been a very small proportion of enrollees in programs such as the Job Corps and the Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP).

An analysis of enrollees by program type indicates that women are less likely to be in programs that develop job-specific skills and are less well integrated into the job market. They are more likely to be enrolled in classroom and work experience programs and are less likely to be in public service employment and on-the-job training. These differences exist even after adjustment for gender-related differences in background characteristics. Women who take vocational or skills training are disproportionately concentrated in a few traditional fields. CETA and WIN programs appear to move few adult women into mixed or male-dominated fields and, in fact, fail to retain those with pre-CETA training in mixed or male-dominated fields in those areas.¹² These findings hold to a lesser degree for youth as well as adults.

¹¹Harlan, Sex Differences.

¹²Sue E. Berryman, Winston K. Chow, and Robert M. Bell, CETA: Is It Equitable for Women (Santa Monica: The Rand Corporation, 1981); and Richardson, Youth in the WIN Program. Some small demonstration programs have succeeded in moving women into nontraditional fields but because of the high cost of training they have not involved a large number of trainees.

The fact that these patterns do exist is not proof of discriminatory behavior on the part of program sponsors. The selection and assignment processes may reflect the preferences of women who apply for training. There is, in fact, evidence that women are more likely to request traditional fields for training. This may be due to their attitudes about vocational fields or it may be a consequence of their assessment of the job market. For example, CETA has a poor placement record for women who train in mixed or male-dominated fields.¹³ However, women are less likely than men to get their preferred program assignment and where they ask for training they are more likely to get classroom training rather than OJT. Where they request jobs they are more likely to get adult work experience and less likely to get PSE.¹⁴

The Benefits of Employment and Training Programs

Who participates in employment and training is important because of the potential benefits from participation. These programs can provide immediate income, work experience, and/or training.¹⁵ They can also have an impact on long-run employment and earnings, as well as future education and training.

Evaluations have been conducted on employment and training programs throughout their existence. They have differed in their methodologies, their data sets, and their overall conclusions. One fairly consistent conclusion, at least in evaluation of outcomes for adults, is that women and the economically disadvantaged receive the greatest gains from participation in

¹³Berryman et al., CETA.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵For a more detailed discussion of program objectives and outcomes, see Burbridge, "An Evaluation."

employment and training programs.¹⁶ This was true for the early programs established under MDTA and has continued to be true under CETA.¹⁷ There is no consistency, however, in the assessment of which program activities have the greatest effect or the mechanism by which these gains are made. For example, some studies conclude that OJT and skills training have the highest payoffs¹⁸ while other studies point out that the employment gains of these two programs decay over time.¹⁹ A recent study using the Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey, however, found that the net earnings gains for women do not vary by program activity but are in the range of \$800 to \$1,300 for all programs. Moreover, these gains do not appear to decrease over time.²⁰

How these programs lead to earnings gains is not totally clear. Some studies indicate that the major source of the earnings gains is an increase in the number of hours worked and not an increase in the hourly wage. This outcome may occur as a result of a change in labor force status on the part of the program participants. In other words individuals, particularly women, who

¹⁶It should be noted that some studies cited below measure gross earnings and/or employment impact while others measure net earnings and/or employment gains (using a control group). This changes the magnitude but not the sign of the impacts for women.

¹⁷Charles R. Perry, et al., The Impact of Government Manpower Programs (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1975); Laurie J. Bassi, "CETA--Is It a Cost Effective Method for Increasing the Earnings of Disadvantaged Workers?" (Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute, 1982); and Congressional Budget Office and National Commission for Employment Policy, CETA Training Programs--Do They Work for Adults? (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1982).

¹⁸Harlan, Sex Differences.

¹⁹U.S. Department of Labor, The Work Incentive (WIN) Program and Related Experiences (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1977).

²⁰Congressional Budget Office and National Commission for Employment Policy, CETA Training Programs.

make a decision to enter the labor market or move from casual, part-time work to full-time employment may use government programs as a means of gaining entry to employment opportunities. If this is true then the source of the employment and earnings gains may be the placement and work experience aspects of the programs and not the specific training provided.

Past efforts to assess the gains for youth from employment and training programs have been more complicated because the desired outcomes are more diverse. While the ultimate goal is still increasing long-run employment and earnings, the routes may be quite different. In addition to or instead of increased post-program earnings the objectives for youth may include increased educational attainment, decreases in dropout rates and criminal activity, and delayed childbearing. The multiplicity of objectives and the lack of a comparison group against which to measure net gains complicates the assessment of programs.

A recent study of the Job Corps attempts to measure a variety of possible outcomes using a comparison group.²¹ This study concludes that the Job Corps increases post-program earnings and employment for men and for women without children who complete the program. This occurs through increases in both wages and hours worked and there appears to be little decay in these gains over time. There was no significant impact on women with children. Job Corps participants also were more likely to obtain additional education or join the military. They were less likely to be on public assistance programs or engage in criminal activity.

²¹ Mathematica Policy Research, Inc., Evaluation of the Economic Impact of the Job Corps Program, Second Follow-up Report (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, 1980).

Unfortunately, the Job Corps is one of the most expensive programs and enrolls only a small percentage of youth who participate in employment and training programs.²² Most youth are enrolled in work experience programs which may have little or no impact on employability. Some reviews of youth in work experience conclude that gains are minimal because the experience that youth gain in these programs is not valued by private sector employers. Others stress the fact that early joblessness leads to lower lifetime employment and earnings and that participation in these programs increases the labor force commitment of young people.²³

THE CURRENT STUDY

As the previous section indicates, some government-sponsored employment and training programs are effective in terms of desired program outcomes. However, those who gain the most from these programs--women and the economically disadvantaged--do not participate to the extent that they are represented in the pool of eligibles. Why this is the case is not fully understood. Members of these groups may have different preferences for participation in various government programs and therefore are not in the pool of applicants to the extent they are represented in the eligible population. On the other hand, program sponsors may use outreach methods and selection criteria which discriminate against members of these groups. Or, the more likely situation, both participant preference and sponsor selection may vary

²²Women are only about 30 percent of Job Corps enrollment.

²³Congressional Budget Office, Improving Youth Employment Prospects: Issues and Options (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1982); and U.S. Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment, A Review of Youth Employment Problems, Programs, and Policies (Washington, D.C., 1980).

in a nonrandom way. This study uses the National Longitudinal Survey of Young Americans to examine the characteristics of participants in government-sponsored employment and training programs. By looking at both those characteristics that are likely to motivate individuals to apply for programs and those that are likely to affect sponsor selection, we expect to gain additional insight into participation rates. This, in turn, should help to understand measured program outcomes. The focus is on the characteristics of young women who participate in these programs, how they compare with nonparticipants, and how they compare with young men who participate in employment and training programs.

The use of the NLS allows participants to be compared with nonparticipants on a variety of factors. This cannot be done with other databases such as the Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey (CLMS) because it does not include a control group of nonparticipants. However, there is a disadvantage to using the NLS because it does not contain adequate information on the specific program (CETA title or the title of the youth demonstration project) the individual is enrolled in which would allow comparisons of individuals in different types of programs. Nor is the sample of participants large enough to make statistical valid comparisons of enrollees in different program activities (classroom training, work experience, OJT, etc.).

The Database

The National Longitudinal Survey of Young Americans is a national random sample of 12,693 youth, both male and female, who were 14 to 21 years of age in 1979. The survey oversampled for Hispanics, blacks, and low-income whites—groups which comprise a substantial share of the population targeted by government employment and training programs. Four waves of data have been

collected, the first two of which (1979 and 1980) were available at the time this study was conducted.

The information obtained from respondents includes family demographic characteristics, personal and family income sources, educational attainment, work history, and current attitudes and aspirations, factors which may be important in determining the level of effort young women will devote to obtaining career training. In 1980, information on school characteristics and respondent test scores were obtained from the respondents' schools.

An examination of the demographic characteristics of the unweighted sample indicates that 54.1 percent of the sample is white, 24.4 percent is black, 13.1 percent is of Hispanic origin, and 8.1 percent belong to other racial or ethnic groups. Within each ethnic group the sample is evenly divided between males and females. The vast majority of the respondents (74.6 percent) lived with their parents in 1979. Only 11.3 percent were married while another 1.8 percent were separated, widowed, or divorced. Women and Hispanics of both sexes were more likely to be married than other individuals in the sample. Nearly 22 percent of the respondents had at least one child in 1980. Twenty percent of the sample lived in the central city and 30.6 percent lived outside of metropolitan areas.²⁴

A substantial portion of the sample has participated in some type of employment or training program. Over 2,000 individuals participated in at least one government-sponsored employment or training program (excluding military training). Military training was received by nearly 1,200

²⁴The balance of the sample lived in an SMSA either outside the central city or unaware of whether they lived in the central city. Most of the latter group were military enlistees.

individuals (80 percent of those who have served in the military) and 873 took one or more private training courses. Some individuals participated in programs in more than one sector.

Factors Affecting Participation and Participation Experiences

For the purpose of our analysis we identified variables in five areas that might affect participation in employment and training programs either through their impact on the individual's decision to apply for various programs or through their impact on program sponsors' decisions about which participants to admit to programs. These variables can be categorized as follows: background and demographic variables, educational variables, work experience variables, family responsibility and family attitude variables, and income and financial resources variables. In addition we selected variables from the survey which would enable us to describe the nature of participants' experiences in employment and training programs.

Our major hypotheses were based on conclusions found in studies of program participation and on known differences in participation rates by men and women. They were as follows:

1. That government-sponsored employment and training programs "cream" in terms of income and education, taking the best of program eligibles. This creaming takes place differently for men and women, with women tending to be better qualified than their male counterparts.
2. That women's participation in employment and training programs is affected by their attitudes toward women's roles and their own expectations about their future participation in the labor market.
3. That many of the factors that affect decisions to participate in government programs affect decisions to participate in other types of training programs.

Hypotheses concerning the different sets of independent variables are discussed below.

Background and Demographic Variables. The standard demographic variables were selected for use in the analysis--age, race, sex. These were viewed as possibly affecting both application and selection. On the application side, the variables may affect perception of need for the program. Women, for example, may not feel the necessity of obtaining training if they do not anticipate spending an extensive period of time in the job market. Race may also affect demand. Minorities may be more likely to apply because they see themselves as having few alternatives. On the other hand, they may be less likely to apply if they feel lack of training is less important than other factors such as discrimination. However, by controlling for variables such as attitudes, aspirations, and perception of job problems, their impact on race and gender differences in demand for services can be minimized. From the prime sponsor's point of view race and gender may be used as screening devices if the sponsor thinks that there is a correlation between these variables and work commitment or aspirations, even if such differences do not exist.

Background variables that were included in the analysis were whether the individual lived with one or both parents at age 14, and parents' work experience and educational attainment. These variables may have an effect on the individual's desire for training through their impact on aspirations, family stability, and the availability of role models for the individual.

Educational Variables. Education is a form of investment in human capital. Those with the least education may be viewed by program sponsors as poor risks because these individuals may be hard to place on program completion. However, these individuals may be the ones with the greatest need for help since they lack the formal educational training to obtain decent jobs. The educational variables selected included attainment, performance,

and school quality variables such as highest grade completed, whether the individual dropped out of school or was ever expelled, school curriculum and remedial work, test scores, teacher quality, and composition of the student body.

Family Responsibilities and Attitudes. Women's attitudes about women's role and their own expectations about work and family are expected to have a significant impact on their participation in employment and training programs. If a young woman does not expect to be in the labor market long enough to receive the benefits of efforts expended in training programs, then she may not apply for these programs. Her expectations can be seen in two types of variables. One group would be her attitudes toward women working. The second group would be her own expectations about labor market participation. The two may or may not work in the same direction. That is, a woman may have very traditional attitudes about women's roles but may also feel that economic necessity will force her to work. If this is the case, we expect economic necessity to dominate the decision process. We selected five attitude variables, including one on the impact of inflation on wives working. We also selected a number of expectation variables--what they expect to do at age 35, when they expect to marry and/or have children, and their expected level of educational attainment. Some of the same variables were used in the analysis of participation by males.

Family responsibility can have different effects on men and women's participation in training programs. For men, the added responsibility of a wife and children may increase the probability that they will participate in employment and training programs. For women, on the other hand, having a husband and/or children may decrease their interest in participating in such programs.

Financial Needs and Resources. Financial need and resources are related to family responsibility. Additional variables that were selected for analysis included total family income, welfare and other public assistance income, number of months on public assistance, number of dependents, whether parents or spouse worked, and respondent's and spouse's income. The greater the individual's resources the less likely the individual will be to apply for or be selected for participation in employment and training programs. The greater the financial needs, as measured either by low labor income, dependence on public assistance, or number of dependents, the greater the probability that an individual will apply for an employment and training program.

Work Experience. The type of labor market experiences an individual has may be a determinant in an individual's decision to participate in employment or training programs. If an individual has trouble getting or keeping a job, has an unpleasant job experience, has long periods of unemployment, or lives in an area with high unemployment, he or she may be more likely to participate in these programs. Specific employment barriers such as having a criminal record or being a female with children may affect an individual's work experiences. They may also decrease the individual's attractiveness to program sponsors. These work experience and employment barriers were examined for their possible impact on participation in employment and training programs.²⁵

²⁵ Some of the variables discussed in this section and preceding sections have been used in other studies. See, for example, Paul E. Barton and Bryna Shore Fraser, Between Two Worlds: Youth Transition From School to Work (Center for Education and Work, National Manpower Institute, 1978); and Andrew B. Hahn, "Early Themes from YEDPA: The Federal Youth Employment Initiatives--Part 2," Youth and Society 12 (December 1980): 221-46.

The Nature of Participation. One side of the analysis is the factors that determine participation in employment and training programs. The other side of the analysis is an examination of the nature of participation in programs. We selected variables that would describe the experiences of program participants--type of program, length of time in training, program satisfaction--and looked for possible patterns by race, sex, and date of participation.

Cross-tabular Analysis

The first stage of our analysis was to obtain cross tabulations on a number of variables. This provided us with a profile of program participants and enabled us to identify those variables that might explain participation in employment and training programs, particularly factors that might be different for men and women. Participants in government programs were compared with nonparticipants and with participants in private (primarily vocational) and military training programs. In our analysis all of the respondents who were 14 years old in 1979 (and thus less than 16 years old by 1980) were dropped since their participation rate is relatively low and almost exclusively in the summer jobs programs. In some of the cross tabulations, participants in more than one program were separated from those who had participated in only one program. All analysis was done on the unweighted sample so the distributions and participation rates apply to this sample and cannot be projected directly to the U.S. population as a whole.

Background and Demographic Variables. As indicated in the preceding section, we selected for our demographic and background variables those that might be expected to affect participation--age, sex, race, and parental work and educational background. Most of our cross tabulations confirmed our prior notions but others did not.

Young women are less likely than young men to have participated in a training program outside of the regular educational structure, but most of the gap is attributable to lower rates of training in the military. Participation rates in government and private training are nearly equal for males and females although there are substantial differences by race and ethnic group. The one exception is females in the "other race" category, which is primarily Oriental. Women in this group are less likely to have participated in training programs than males of the same group.

Blacks of both sexes have the highest participation rates in government programs (over 30 percent) but they are less likely to participate in private training. Their participation rates in military training programs are lower than those for whites and other nonwhites but are higher than those for Hispanics (Tables 1 through 3).

Educational Variables. Cross tabulations on our educational variables indicated a number of areas of similarity by sex and by participation status and some areas where there were significant differences. In general, young women have higher levels of educational attainment than young men. Overall, males are more likely to have less than a high school education (49.2 percent of the males versus 44.5 percent of the females in the sample) and less likely to have completed any formal education beyond high school (19.2 percent for males versus 23.8 percent for females). This differential is similar for all ethnic groups except Hispanics. For those who have participated in government programs the educational gap is much wider. Among recent participants there are large differences between men and women, with a larger percentage of the female than the male participants having completed twelfth grade and acquired some college education. With the exception of Hispanics, the gender

Table 1

NLS Youth Sample
 Participation in Government-Sponsored Employment and Training Programs
 by Race and Sex

	Males				Females				Total
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	
Nonparticipants									
n	2,665	913	546	373	2,664	928	562	389	9,040
%	(89.1)	(66.9)	(75.9)	(82.9)	(83.7)	(68.0)	(76.6)	(87.2)	(81.7)
Single Program Participants									
n	227	290	96	54	224	268	111	34	1,304
%	(7.6)	(21.3)	(13.4)	(12.0)	(7.5)	(19.6)	(15.1)	(7.6)	(11.8)
Multiple Program Participants									
n	99	161	77	23	115	168	61	23	727
%	(3.3)	(11.8)	(10.7)	(5.1)	(3.8)	(12.3)	(8.3)	(5.2)	(6.6)

Table 2

NLS Youth Sample
Participation in Private Training Programs
by Race and Sex

	Males				Females				Total
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	
Nonparticipants									
n	2,723	1,291	675	408	2,722	1,272	684	415	10,190
%	(91.2)	(94.7)	(94.0)	(90.9)	(90.7)	(93.3)	(93.3)	(93.0)	(92.1)
Single Program Participants									
n	218	68	37	33	256	81	46	26	765
%	(7.3)	(5.0)	(4.8)	(7.3)	(8.5)	(5.9)	(6.3)	(5.8)	(6.9)
Multiple Program Participants									
n	46	4	6	8	24	10	3	5	106
%	(1.5)	(0.3)	(0.8)	(1.8)	(0.8)	(0.7)	(0.4)	(1.1)	(1.0)

Table 3
NLS Youth Sample
Participation in Military Training Programs
by Race and Sex

	Males				Females				Total
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	
Nonparticipants									
n	2,472	1,169	668	365	2,710	1,273	719	411	9,787
%	(82.6)	(85.7)	(92.9)	(81.1)	(90.2)	(93.3)	(98.0)	(92.2)	(88.4)
Single Program Participants									
n	239	92	30	27	126	46	5	18	583
%	(8.0)	(6.7)	(4.2)	(6.0)	(4.2)	(3.4)	(0.7)	(4.0)	(5.3)
Multiple Program Participants									
n	280	103	21	58	167	45	10	17	701
%	(9.4)	(7.6)	(2.9)	(12.9)	(5.6)	(3.3)	(1.4)	(3.8)	(6.3)

differences in educational attainment are larger for government program participants than for nonparticipants. However, female participants tend to be somewhat older than males, so this age differential may account for the education difference.

There are also differences in the proportions of the population who have taken remedial education courses in either mathematics or English. A higher percentage of the male population (about 5 percent higher for each race or ethnic group) had taken at least one remedial course. Government program participants were also more likely to have taken remedial education courses, with 15.4 percent of single program participants and 13.1 percent of multiple program participants having had remedial education compared to 11.8 percent for nonparticipants.²⁶

There were very few differences in the other education variables by either gender or participation status. Minority group individuals (and government program participants) were more likely to attend schools with high dropout rates and high proportions of disadvantaged students as might be expected but teacher quality (as measured by percent of teachers with masters degrees) did not vary much. Test scores had to be dropped from the analysis because they were available for only a small proportion of the sample, so we had no reliable measure of educational achievement.

These cross tabulations indicate that participants in government-sponsored programs have, on average, lower levels of human capital than the youth population as a whole but most of these differences tend to be correlated with lower levels of income, one of the program eligibility

²⁶Detailed figures on educational variables can be found in Appendix A, Tables A-1 to A-3.

criteria. Female participants, however, are better educated than male participants and the gap in their levels of educational attainment are greater than those for the population as a whole, which may indicate a difference in the educational standard applied to men and women.

Family Responsibilities and Attitudes. One of the innovative aspects of this study was the investigation of the effect of women's attitudes and responsibilities on their participation in employment and training programs. In the area of family responsibility there are significant differences between the men and women in the sample. Attitudes and expectations also differ between men and women, as expected, but more interestingly there appear to be some differences between women's attitudes and their own expectations about work, which are discussed later.

In 1979 the vast majority of the respondents in the sample lived with their parents. Participants in private training programs were less likely to live with their parents, but government program participants tended to look like the population as a whole. Young women were less likely to live with their parents and were more likely to be married and living on their own. There were large racial differences in living arrangements beginning at age 18, with blacks of both sexes being much less likely to live on their own than members of other racial or ethnic groups.

The women in the sample, both married and unmarried, were much more likely to have children, with 17 percent of the women in the sample having at least one child, compared to 6.9 percent of the men. There were 496 women in the sample (7.8 percent of all women) who were heads of household.²⁷

²⁷Detailed figures on living arrangements and marital status can be found in Appendix A, Tables A-4 to A-6.

Participants in government training programs were no more likely to be married than the sample as a whole. They were, however, more likely to have children. Participants in private training were more likely to be married than nonparticipants. A significant proportion of women who were heads of household had participated in some type of employment or training program.

Women's attitudes toward women's role were less traditional than those of their male counterparts, with women being much less likely to agree that a woman's place is in the home (Table 4). However, their expectations about their own behavior are considerably more traditional than their stated attitudes. While only 14 percent of all women think that a woman's place is in the home, about one-fourth of the women expect that their major activity at age 35 will be "family only" (Table 5). Only for black women does the percent who think a woman's place is in the home approximate the percent who expect to be out of the labor force at age 35.

We have hypothesized that women who participate in employment and training programs have less traditional attitudes than nonparticipants and are more likely to expect to be in the labor market for most of their adult years. This is the case for women who participated in programs prior to 1978. However, since it is possible that program participation and maturation affected their attitudes, it is more useful to concentrate on those who participated after January of 1978 since the respondents' attitudes are most likely to precede participation. Here we find that women who have been participants in government programs since 1978 are no less likely to think that a woman's place is in the home than are women who did not participate in training programs. They are more likely to think that a woman's place is in the home than those who participated in private or military training programs

Table 4
NLS Youth Sample
Response to Statement "A Woman's Place is in the Home"
by Race and Sex

	Males				Females			
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other
Strongly Disagree								
n	452	261	75	78	1,248	561	271	164
%	(15.2)	(19.3)	(10.5)	(17.6)	(41.7)	(41.3)	(37.1)	(36.9)
Disagree								
n	1,648	734	338	237	1,345	615	308	194
%	(55.6)	(54.2)	(47.4)	(53.6)	(44.3)	(45.3)	(42.1)	(43.6)
Agree								
n	657	256	204	91	310	121	105	70
%	(22.2)	(18.9)	(28.6)	(20.6)	(10.4)	(8.9)	(14.4)	(15.7)
Strongly Agree								
n	209	103	96	36	107	60	47	17
%	(7.0)	(7.6)	(13.5)	(8.1)	(3.6)	(4.4)	(6.4)	(3.8)

Table 5
NLS Youth Sample
Response to Question "What Do You Expect to be Doing at Age 35?"
by Race and Sex

	Males				Females			
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other
Present Job								
n	79	16	32	10	51	9	11	8
%	(2.8)	(1.2)	(4.8)	(2.3)	(1.8)	(0.7)	(1.6)	(1.9)
Some Occupation								
n	2,514	1,164	595	378	1,967	1,081	483	297
%	(88.7)	(89.3)	(88.7)	(88.7)	(68.2)	(87.3)	(69.8)	(70.2)
Family Only								
n	46	30	14	6	759	152	180	97
%	(1.6)	(2.3)	(2.1)	(1.4)	(26.3)	(11.6)	(26.0)	(22.9)
Other								
n	194	93	30	32	106	72	18	21
%	(6.8)	(7.1)	(4.5)	(7.5)	(3.7)	(5.5)	(2.6)	(5.0)

(Table 6). However, when asked what they expect to be doing at age 35, government program participants are more likely to say "work," indicating that they expect economic reality to be a factor in their actions (Table 7).

Financial Need. Over 90 percent of the respondents in the sample had less than \$3,000 in own labor income. Total family income with its greater variation proved more useful for examining differences in participation. Since income is a factor in the eligibility criteria for selection into government-sponsored employment and training programs we would expect program participants to come from families with lower incomes and that is the case. However, a significant proportion of the program participants come from families with incomes over the BLS lower living standard and this is more true for whites than for other groups. As Table 8 indicates, whites who participated in government programs after January 1, 1978 tended to come from families with higher incomes than did participants from other racial and ethnic groups. For both whites and blacks, female participants came from families with higher incomes than male participants. While it is true that whites in general have a higher income distribution than blacks, this is not the case for women versus men, holding race constant. Indeed, the women in the NLS sample are more likely to be in low-income households than the men are. Therefore, the differences in income distribution between male and female participants would seem to indicate that the programs serve a different "clientele" within each racial or gender group.

Work Experience. Over 80 percent of the respondents in the sample hold or have held regular jobs but only a small fraction of them work more than 35 hours per week. As might be expected, these young people change jobs often, with over 50 percent of the sample leaving jobs after less than five months.

Table 6

NLS Youth Sample
 Women's Response to Statement
 "A Woman's Place is in the Home"
 by Participant Status

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<u>Pre-1978</u>				
Nonparticipants	39.5%	44.5%	11.6%	4.3%
Participants in Other Training Programs	41.1	47.3	8.5	3.1
Participants in Government Programs	46.7	42.4	7.3	2.6
<u>Post-1978</u>				
Nonparticipants	39.0	44.8	11.7	4.5
Participants in Other Training Programs	53.4	39.3	5.9	1.4
Participants in Government Programs	39.3	45.5	10.7	4.5

Table 7
 NLS Youth Sample
 Women's Response to "What Do You
 Expect to be Doing at Age 35?"
 By Participant Status

	Work	Family Only	Other
<u>Pre-1978</u>			
Nonparticipants	73.1%	23.0%	3.9%
Participants in Other Training Programs	72.9	21.6	5.5
Participants in Government Programs	76.4	18.6	5.0
<u>Post-1978</u>			
Nonparticipants	72.2	23.9	4.0
Participants in Other Training Programs	75.9	17.3	6.8
Participants in Government Programs	79.6	17.7	2.7

Table 8
NLS Youth Sample
Family Income Distribution for Post-1978
Government Program Participants
By Race and Sex

1978 Family Income	Males				Females				Total
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	
\$ 0,000 - 3,999	9.2%	15.2%	8.6%	2.8%	7.9%	13.7%	12.8%	4.5%	11.5%
\$ 4,000 - 7,999	33.0	35.6	39.0	41.7	31.0	30.3	30.8	31.8	33.4
\$ 8,000 - 12,999 ^a	23.2	26.5	28.6	25.0	23.0	27.0	32.5	45.5	26.8
\$13,000 and Over	34.6	22.7	23.8	30.6	38.1	29.0	23.9	18.2	28.3

^aThe BLS lower living standard for an urban family of four was \$12,485 in 1978.

Sixty-five percent of the sample was out of work for a month or more prior to the 1980 interview, with fifty percent having more than three months of no work. Women in general had longer periods of no work than males, holding race constant.

Participants in employment and training programs were more likely to have had a regular job and were more likely to have worked more than 35 hours a week. However, it is very hard to separate cause and effect since the program is often the employer, at least in the case of government program participants. There was no appreciable difference between government program participants and others in terms of length of periods of no work, but participants in private training programs had fewer months of no work than others.

Nature of Participation. In order to assess the treatment of women in government-sponsored employment and training programs, more information than presented in the previous sections is needed. This section provides information on the type of programs individuals participate in, the services they receive, and their assessment of the value of participation.

The bulk of youth who participate in government programs are placed in a job as opposed to a training program. Over one-half of government job program participants prior to 1978 were placed in a summer job (Table 9). This is also typical of those enrolled after 1978. Minorities who participate in programs are more likely to be in summer jobs than whites. In spite of their lower school dropout rates, whites who participate in government job programs are more likely to be in the in-school job programs. Very few youths of either sex were placed in OJT or Public Service Employment, programs that are almost exclusively used for adult participants.

Table 9
NLS Youth Sample
Government Program Assignment for Participants Prior to 1978 by Race and Sex

	Males				Females				Total
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	
Summer									
n	76	119	44	18	78	135	43	13	526
%	(45.8)	(63.3)	(57.1)	(51.4)	(42.2)	(64.9)	(60.6)	(50.0)	(55.0)
In-school									
n	34	12	8	4	48	15	9	3	133
%	(20.5)	(6.4)	(10.4)	(11.4)	(25.9)	(7.2)	(12.7)	(11.5)	(13.9)
Out-of-School									
n	1	4	2	0	0	4	1	0	12
%	(0.6)	(2.1)	(2.6)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(1.9)	(1.4)	(0.0)	(1.3)
OJT									
n	6	4	3	1	9	10	5	1	39
%	(3.6)	(2.1)	(3.9)	(2.9)	(4.9)	(4.8)	(7.0)	(3.8)	(4.1)
PEP/PSE									
n	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	4
%	(0.6)	(0.5)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(1.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.4)
CETA Nonspecific									
n	33	35	13	8	33	31	9	6	168
%	(19.9)	(18.6)	(16.9)	(22.9)	(17.8)	(14.9)	(12.7)	(23.1)	(17.6)
Urban and Youth Conservation Corps									
n	10	8	5	4	15	5	2	2	51
%	(6.0)	(4.3)	(6.5)	(11.4)	(8.1)	(2.4)	(2.8)	(7.7)	(5.3)
Youth Demonstration (YETP, YIEPP)									
n	5	5	2	0	2	6	2	1	23
%	(3.0)	(2.7)	(2.6)	(0.0)	(1.1)	(2.9)	(2.8)	(3.8)	(2.4)

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The number who were placed in any training program is very small, making it very hard to draw firm conclusions about program assignments. Table 10, which shows participation in training programs prior to 1978, is typical of the level of youth participation in these programs.

The average amount of time spent in government training is fairly short. For example, over one-half of those who took government training in 1978 (not including employment programs) were enrolled less than four months. However, this is approximately the same as the amount of time spent by individuals enrolled in military training programs. Only people enrolled in private vocational programs spend significantly longer in training, with approximately one half of all participants enrolled for twelve months or more. In every type of training program women seem to spend less time than men. Blacks also spend less time in programs than whites. These differences may or may not be related to the type of training received.²⁸

A relatively small proportion of all enrollees in government programs received services such as health or child care, transportation, job counseling, or classroom training. Job counseling was the service most frequently received. Blacks were more likely to receive counseling than whites and men were more likely to receive counseling than women. Males were more likely to receive classroom, college preparatory, or GED training. This would be consistent with their lower levels of educational attainment. Among the whites who received skills training in 1978, females were more likely to receive it than males. Among blacks the reverse was true but blacks were a very small percent of those receiving skills training. Female heads of

²⁸ Detailed figures on enrollment periods can be found in Appendix A, Tables A-7 to A-9.

Table 10

NLS Youth Sample
 Number of Participants in Different Types of Government Training Programs
 Prior to 1978, by Race and Sex

	Males				Females				Total
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	
Apprentice	3	3	2	0	5	5	1	0	19
CETA	11	11	4	3	22	20	4	1	74
Job Corps	5	16	0	3	0	4	2	1	31
MDTA	0	1	1	1	2	1	0	0	6
OIC	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	4
Jobs for Progress	0	0	3	0	1	0	0	0	4
National Urban League	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	3
Vocational Rehabilitation	2	1	0	0	2	1	1	0	7
Other	8	6	5	3	11	10	6	3	52
Total	29	42	15	10	45	40	14	5	200

household were more likely to receive health and child care services than others, but less than one-half of that group received services in 1978.

When asked why they enrolled in a government job program in 1978, over one-half said they enrolled to make money. White women were somewhat less likely to give this reason. To have a job was the second most frequently cited reason. Only about 14 percent said they did it for the training or experience (Table 11). Over 80 percent said that they were satisfied with their government jobs, but few (15 percent) thought that participation would improve their future job opportunities. A larger proportion of black women (24 percent) thought the government program would improve their opportunities than any other group.

Summary. The cross-tabular analysis provided us with valuable insight into the characteristics of government program participants. Among the background variables we found that minorities of both sexes were more likely to participate in government programs than whites, but that men and women were equally represented in government programs.

Most of the education variables showed very little variation by gender or by participant status. We did find that women who had participated in government programs had higher levels of educational attainment than male participants and the gender gap was larger for participants than it was for nonparticipants, suggesting that educational attainment may have a different effect on female participation.

We found differences in attitudes toward women's roles between private and military program participants and others but not between government program participants and the general sample. We did, however, find that more women in employment and training programs anticipated labor force participation at age 35 than nonparticipants.

Table 11

NLS Youth Sample
Reason Enrolled in Government Job Program by Race and Sex, 1979

	Males				Females			
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other
For the Money								
n	21	19	11	5	13	22	7	2
%	(56.8)	(50.0)	(52.4)	(31.3)	(36.1)	(62.9)	(26.9)	(33.3)
To Get a Better Job								
n	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0
%	(0.0)	(2.6)	(0.0)	(6.3)	(5.6)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)
To Get a Job								
n	11	10	4	7	15	9	11	2
%	(29.7)	(26.3)	(19.0)	(43.8)	(41.7)	(25.7)	(42.3)	(33.3)
For the Training or Experience								
n	5	5	6	1	5	2	6	2
%	(13.5)	(13.2)	(28.6)	(6.3)	(13.9)	(5.7)	(23.1)	(33.3)
For Something to Do								
n	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
%	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(6.3)	(0.0)	(2.9)	(3.8)	(0.0)
Sounded Interesting or Other								
n	0	3	0	1	1	1	1	0
%	(0.0)	(7.9)	(0.0)	(6.3)	(2.8)	(2.9)	(3.8)	(0.0)

Family income varied inversely with participation in government programs, which was expected. However, there were differences in the income distribution of participants by race and by gender, suggesting possible differences in patterns of application or selection.

Multivariate Analysis

The second stage of our analysis was to use multivariate analysis to specify the net effects of various factors on participation in public and private programs. By simultaneously controlling for the wide variety of factors which can affect program participation decisions, multivariate analysis allows a more precise specification of the determinants of participation. Two multivariate techniques were used in the analysis, ordinary least squares regression (OLS) and logit regression. The analysis was restricted to those over the age of 16 and was conducted separately by type of training (government, private, and military).²⁹ Separate analysis by program type (classroom, public service employment, work-study, and in-school/out-of-school, etc.) could not be done because of the small sample size in individual programs. Equations were of the general form:

$$P_i = f(B_i, E_i, R_i, F_i, W_i, UE_i)$$

where P_i is the probability of an individual participating in a given training program and the independent variables are summarized in six broad classes as:

- B_i = background and demographic;
- E_i = education;
- R_i = family responsibilities and attitudes;

²⁹ For purposes of this analysis, government "training" includes employment programs.

- F_i = financial need;
 W_i = work experience; and
 UE_i = local employment conditions.

The six classes of variables are therefore hypothesized to affect the likelihood that a respondent will participate in a particular type of training program (i.e., government, private, military).

The dependent variable P_i was constructed separately for each of the three participation categories (government, private, military) as follows:

- P_i = 0 if the respondent was a nonparticipant in the training category of interest;
 = 1 if the respondent was a participant in the category of interest.

This resulted in a categorical or multichotomous dependent variable, that is, a variable with two or more discrete values. Ordinary least squares regression can be used with multichotomous dependent variables by constructing a series of dichotomous or binary variables for the dependent variable.

The main objective of the study was to determine which factors are likely to affect participation in employment and training programs, whether these factors differ for men and women, and whether after adjusting for all the relevant factors there is still a sex differential. Therefore, for each employment/training category, three equations were estimated; one for the entire sample and one for each gender.

The analysis was done separately for training taken before 1978 and training taken in 1978 or later.³⁰ The results are presented for the post-1978 equations since the independent variables in those equations are most

³⁰In our discussion, pre-1978 refers to participation prior to January 1, 1978, and post-1978 refers to participation after January 1, 1978.

likely to be concurrent with decisions about participation. Appendix Tables A-10 and A-11 present the unstandardized coefficients and significance levels for the pre-1978 government and private training equations.³¹

The set of independent variables selected was based on the results of our cross-tabular analysis. The variable labels used in the tables and the definitions of these variables are listed below. An explanation of the construction of variables is given where relevant. The rationale for inclusion of the specific variables is given in the following section.

Background and Demographic

1. AGE79 = respondent's age in 1979
2. RACE = respondent's race:³²
 - BLACK = 1 if race is black; 0 otherwise
 - HISPANIC = 1 if race is Hispanic; 0 otherwise;
 - OTHERACE = 1 if race is not white, black, or Hispanic; 0 otherwise
3. SEX = respondent's sex:
 - = 1 if female; 0 otherwise
4. LIVEWITH = who the respondent lived with at age 14:
 - LIVEWITH1 = 1 if respondent lived with one parent and no other adult; 0 otherwise
 - LIVEWITH2 = 1 if respondent lived with one parent and another adult other than a parent; 0 otherwise
 - LIVEWITH3 = 1 if respondent lived with two parents (or one parent and a stepparent); 0 otherwise

³¹The extract did not enable us to determine the date(s) of military training and, therefore, we did not construct a pre-1978 and post-1978 military training variable.

³²Since many of the variables were put in dummy form, one value served as the reference variable. For example, in this case "white" was the reference variable.

5. FATHERGRAD = highest grade completed by respondent's father:
 FATHERGRAD1 = 1 if father completed high school; 0 otherwise
 FATHERGRAD2 = 1 if father attained schooling beyond high school; 0 otherwise
6. MOTHERWORK = number of hours respondent's mother worked in 1978
 MOTHERWORK1 = 1 if mother worked, but worked less than 35 hours per week; 0 otherwise
 MOTHERWORK2 = 1 if mother worked more than 35 hours per week; 0 otherwise
7. FEMALEWORK14 = adult female in household worked for pay when respondent was 14:
 = 1 if yes; 0 otherwise

Education

1. HIGHGRADE = highest grade completed by respondent in 1978:
 HIGHGRADE1 = 1 if respondent completed high school; 0 otherwise
 HIGHGRADE2 = 1 if respondent completed some education beyond high school; 0 otherwise
2. REMEDIAL = 1 if respondent took remedial English, remedial math, or English as a second language in high school; 0 otherwise

Family Responsibilities and Attitudes

1. MARITALSTAT = marital status in 1978:
 MARRIED = 1 if respondent was married; 0 otherwise
 DIVORCED = 1 if respondent was divorced, separated, or widowed; 0 otherwise
2. DEPENDENTS = number of dependents in 1978
3. FAMILYATT = respondent's attitude toward the statement "a women's place is in the home:
 FAMILYATT = 1 if respondent agreed with the statement; 0 otherwise
4. WORKEXPECT = work expectations in 5 years

Financial Need

1. FAMINCOME = total family income of respondent's household in 1978
2. MOSWELFARE = number of months on welfare in 1978

Work Experience and Local Employment Conditions³³

1. NOWORK = number of periods of no work in 1978
2. EMPLOYRATE = 1979 unemployment rate for labor market of current residence:³⁴
 - EMPLOYRATE1 = 1 if the unemployment rate was 6 to 11.9 percent; 0 otherwise
 - EMPLOYRATE2 = 1 if the unemployment rate was 12 percent or higher; 0 otherwise

Background and Demographic Variables. Age was included in our analysis for a number of reasons. First, a number of the other independent variables such as educational attainment are correlated with age, so age was a control variable to make sure that these other variables were not picking up the effect of age. Secondly, we found that older women were less likely to have participated in training than younger women, which may or may not be correlated with other variables such as attitudes toward women's roles.

Race and sex were used to test for an effect that might be independent of other pertinent variables such as educational preparation, income, or work experience. Based on all the literature cited in the prior section of the report, the expected sign for race was positive at least for government programs, that for sex, negative.

³³We also tried "Number of Weeks Worked" but eliminated it because we could not separate subsidized from nonsubsidized employment.

³⁴The national unemployment rate for 1978 was 6.0 percent.

Several other variables were selected as representative of role models, family aspirations, and family stability. Father's grade was selected as a measure of both family socioeconomic status and values toward work and education. For women, in particular, the presence of a working female (MOTHERWORK, FEMALEWK14) may have a positive effect on women's desire to obtain employment and training. Family structure (LIVEWITH) may have an independent effect on the behavior of a youth. In particular, other things being equal, the youth in a one-adult home may have a more negative attitude toward participation in employment and training programs. On the other hand, the teenager's contribution to family income may be more important in these households. By including this family structure variable in addition to variables on whether the mother worked for pay, the two issues may be viewed separately.

Education. The education variables selected were used to measure human capital and the need for additional training. In general, participants in training programs might be expected to have lower levels of educational attainment and a higher incidence of remedial education. For the government participants, these two variables might be a measure of "creaming" versus "scraping."

Family Responsibilities and Attitudes. We hypothesized that an increase in family responsibilities would increase the likelihood of participation in programs for men and decrease it for women. Thus we would expect positive coefficients for marriage and dependents in the equations for males and negative ones for women. Moreover, we expected that women's participation would be negatively correlated with their attitudes toward women's "place" (FAMILYATT) and positively related to their expectations about future labor market participation (WORKEEXPECT).

Financial Need and Work Experience. In general, we would expect individuals who have low incomes and poor work histories to be more likely to participate in training programs of all types. Therefore, the expectation was that the coefficients for welfare (MOSWELFARE) and periods of no work (NOWORK) to be positive, while that for family income to be negative.

High unemployment rates should have a positive effect on participation. If jobs are scarce we would expect young people to seek subsidized employment and/or additional training both because the opportunity cost is low and because participation may increase their relative merits to employers. It may be more likely in cases of exceptionally high unemployment (EMPLOYRATE2) than in cases where the rate is just above the national average.

Participation in Government Programs. The variables that were significant in the government participation equation were those related to background and demographic characteristics, educational deficiencies, low income, and poor work experience. For the most part, the sign and significance of the variables seem to be consistent with a "scraping" hypothesis rather than a "creaming" hypothesis (Table 12).

Participation in government programs is positively related to being black or Hispanic, having had remedial education, having welfare income, being in an area of very high unemployment, and the number of periods of no work; all consistent with our hypotheses. Participation is negatively related to age, family income, living with two parents, and father's education; all consistent with expectations. If the .10 level is used in determining significance, sex is marginally significant and negative in sign. It is, however, both smaller and less significant in the post-1978 equation than in the pre-1978 equation, indicating a shift in participation patterns. The coefficients for being

Table 12

Summary of OLS Runs on Participation
in Government Training, Post 1978

	Full Sample		Males		Females	
	B ^a	F statistic	B	F statistic	B	F statistic
AGE79	-.007	4.11**	-.011	5.01**	-.002	0.17
BLACK	.124	110.20***	.116	48.84***	.131	59.90***
HISPANIC	.073	25.11***	.043	4.42**	.102	25.66***
OTHERACE	-.008	0.18	.008	0.09	-.018	0.50
FAMINCOME	-.003	45.89***	-.003	30.61***	-.002	14.37***
SEX	-.016	2.72*				
EMPLOYRATE1	.014	2.14	.013	1.02	.013	0.92
EMPLOYRATE2	.111	12.80***	.131	9.22***	.096	4.66**
MARRIED	-.058	1.95	-.072	1.15	-.049	0.86
DIVORCED	-.107	4.60**	-.111	1.40	-.107	3.29*
DEPENDENTS	-.051	7.38***	-.047	3.51*	-.057	3.91**
HIGHGRADE1	-.023	2.38	-.030	1.95	-.019	0.78
HIGHGRADE2	-.012	0.36	-.034	1.34	.000	0.00
WORKEPECT	.0002	0.00	-.021	0.51	.022	0.62
NOWORK	.045	69.37***	.044	37.37***	.045	29.47***
LIVWITH1	-.013	0.23	-.046	1.37	.025	0.43
LIVWITH2	-.001	0.00	-.036	0.33	.040	0.43
LIVWITH3	-.081	9.81***	-.135	13.13***	-.024	0.46
FATHERGRAD1	-.033	8.78***	-.040	6.62**	-.027	2.88*
FATHERGRAD2	-.050	13.11***	-.054	8.01***	-.049	6.07**
MOTHERWORK1	-.009	0.45	.005	0.07	-.025	1.83
MOTHERWORK2	-.002	0.02	.017	0.68	-.015	0.53
FEMALEWK14	-.034	8.61***	-.032	3.73*	-.035	4.52**
FAMILYATT	-.003	0.33	-.002	0.04	-.004	0.27
REMEDIAL	.042	10.76***	.029	2.98*	.058	8.91**
MCSWELFARE	.006	3.83*	.002	0.04	.007	3.79*
CONSTANT	0.387		0.523		0.204	
NUMBER	6,172		3,208		2,964	
R ²	.11		.12		.10	

*F significant at .10 level.

**F significant at .05 level.

***F significant at .01 level.

^aUnstandardized coefficient.

divorced or separated and having a working female in the household at age 14 were also negative, which were contrary to expectations. The coefficient for dependents was negative for both males and females. While we expected this to be the case for women, it is contrary to our expectations for males.

For the most part the other variables were of the expected sign but were not significant. It is noteworthy that neither work expectations nor attitudes toward women's roles was significant either for the sample as a whole or for the female equation. This means that women who enter government programs do not have greater expectations of future labor market attachment than women who do not participate in government programs.

There were some differences between the two sex-specific equations in terms of the significance of coefficients. Unemployment rates and remedial education have more of an impact on participation by women than by men, judging by the size of the coefficient. In addition, months on welfare and being divorced and separated are significant for women but not for men. On the other hand, low family income, being Hispanic, and low parental education have more of an effect on men than on women. Moreover, age is significant (and negative) for males but not for females.

Private and Military Training. The results of the regression equations for private and for military training reveal differences between these two groups and government participants, an indication that the populations are different. Both groups are significantly older than nonparticipants, in contrast to the government participants who were significantly younger.

In general, the independent variables proved to be less useful in explaining participation in private programs (Table 13). Among the race variables, only the coefficient for the other race group (which is primarily

Table 13

Summary of OLS Runs on Participation
in Private Training, Post 1978

	Full Sample		Males		Females	
	B ^a	F statistic	B	F statistic	B	F statistic
AGE79	.007	18.65***	.007	11.11***	.007	7.89***
BLACK	.003	0.31	.004	0.30	.002	0.07
HISPANIC	.002	0.07	-.004	0.26	.007	0.63
OTHERACE	.017	4.44**	.031	7.77***	.003	0.09
FAMINCME	.001	8.82***	.001	11.01***	.0002	0.66
SEX	.002	0.33	—	—	—	—
EMPLOYRATE1	-.006	1.84	.001	0.04	-.010	2.97*
EMPLOYRATE2	-.007	0.29	.015	0.60	-.029	2.04
MARRIED	.001	0.00	-.042	2.05	.026	1.20
DIVORCED	-.019	0.74	-.034	0.68	-.014	0.26
DEPENDENTS	.012	2.09	.009	0.72	.021	2.65
HIGHGRADE1	-.011	2.67	-.011	1.37	-.012	1.40
HIGHGRADE2	-.021	5.11**	-.010	0.58	-.031	5.27**
WORKEXPECT	-.002	0.04	.007	0.29	-.010	0.59
NOWORK	.005	4.52**	.007	4.79**	.002	0.31
LIVWITH1	.008	0.39	.004	0.06	.009	0.27
LIVWITH2	-.002	0.01	-.023	0.72	.017	0.37
LIVWITH3	-.002	0.02	-.006	0.13	.000	0.00
FATHERGRAD1	.005	1.17	.003	0.17	.008	1.30
FATHERGRAD2	.018	9.06***	.010	1.39	.029	10.01***
MOTHERWORK1	-.010	3.03***	-.016	4.08**	-.004	0.26
MOTHERWORK2	.001	0.02	.002	0.03	.0002	0.00
FEMALEWK14	.009	2.94*	.010	1.80	.010	1.65
FAMILYATT	-.003	1.80	-.001	0.06	-.006	2.71*
REMEDIAL	.000	0.00	.004	0.25	-.004	0.16
MOSWELFARE	-.003	4.42**	-.003	1.62	-.003	3.47*
CONSTANT	-0.101		-0.117		-0.841	
NUMBER	6,172		3,208		2,964	
R ²	.01		.02		.01	

*P significant at .10 level.

**P significant at .05 level.

***P significant at .01 level.

^aUnstandardized coefficient.

Oriental) was significant. Family income was positively rather than negatively related to participation though it was significant only for males and for the full sample. Only one variable was similar in sign and significance to those in the government equation--periods of no work.

The sex-specific equations indicate that the variables which were significant in the government equation were not significant in explaining women's participation in private training programs. Participation in private programs is positively related to age and to father having some education beyond high school, both opposite in sign to government participation. It is negatively related to education beyond high school and having traditional family attitudes, neither of which was significant in the government equation. Private program participation was also negatively related to months on welfare and high unemployment, which were positive in the government equation.

A greater number of variables was significant in the military equation, but in most cases they differed from those in the government equation (Table 14). Participating in military training was positively related to being black and to periods of no work, variables that were also significant in the government participation equation. Participation in military training was also positively related to being married or divorced and to work expectations. As was the case for government participants, military participation was negatively related to sex, family income, and number of dependents.

There were some differences between men and women who participated in military training. In the educational area, women who participated in military training were more likely to have completed high school than women

Table 14

Summary of OLS Runs on Participation
in Military Training

	Full Sample		Males		Females	
	B ^a	F statistic	B	F statistic	B	F statistic
AGE79	.007	26.84**	.011	22.77***	.002	2.19
BLACK	.008	3.45*	.010	1.68	.006	3.07*
HISPANIC	-.008	2.30	-.012	1.60	-.005	1.24
OTHERACE	.003	0.25	.011	0.89	-.005	0.67
FAMINCOME	-.001	4.73**	-.001	2.84*	.000	1.96
SEX	-.025	49.45**	—	—	—	—
EMPLOYRATE1	.004	1.32	.008	1.55	.001	0.10
EMPLOYRATE2	.016	1.85	.028	1.99	-.001	0.01
MARRIED	.159	105.85***	.256	66.92***	.099	74.42***
DIVORCED	.048	6.69**	.215	23.89***	-.007	0.29
DEPENDENTS	-.012	2.97*	-.024	4.10**	-.004	0.37
HIGHGRADE1	-.001	0.03	-.013	1.81	.014	8.20***
HIGHGRADE2	-.022	8.48***	-.031	5.08**	-.008	1.77
WORKEPECT	.015	3.78*	-.020	2.10	.007	1.19
NOWORK	.005	6.04**	.009	7.16***	-.001	0.51
LIVWITH1	-.009	0.88	-.027	2.27	.007	0.66
LIVWITH2	.008	0.23	.008	0.07	.003	0.04
LIVWITH3	-.010	1.10	-.032	3.36*	.011	1.83
FATHERGRAD1	.005	1.27	.005	0.44	.005	1.90
FATHERGRAD2	.0004	0.01	.001	0.01	.0001	0.00
MOTHERWORK1	.004	0.76	.003	0.15	.005	1.47
MOTHERWORK2	-.001	0.01	-.001	0.01	.001	0.02
FEMALEWK14	-.001	0.05	0.00	0.00	-.003	0.79
FAMILYATT	-.003	2.15	-.003	0.51	.003	3.06*
REMEDIAL	.002	0.16	-.002	0.04	.006	2.29
MOSWELFARE	-.001	0.55	-.001	0.17	.000	0.00
CONSTANT	-0.913		-.0143		-.0374	
NUMBER	6,1,72		3,208		2,964	
R ²	.04		.05		.04	

*F significant at .10 level.

**F significant at .05 level.

***F significant at .01 level.

^aUnstandardized coefficient.

who were nonparticipants. In the area of family responsibilities both male and female participants were more likely to be married than nonparticipants but males were also more likely to be divorced and less likely to have dependents. Women participants were more likely to have nontraditional attitudes about women's role than nonparticipants but this was not the case for men in the military.

Alternative regression equations were specified for government and private training participation after 1978 which included participation in either type of program prior to 1978. The result of adding these lagged variables was interesting. Participation in a government program (GOVTPRE78) prior to 1978 increased the probability of participation after 1978 for both sexes (Table 15). It also rendered the sex variable insignificant. The dummy for participation in private training prior to 1978 (PRIVPRE78) was not significant in the government participation equation.

The effect of the two lagged variables was different in the private participation equation (Table 16). For males, participation in either a government or a private training program increased the probability of participation in a private program after 1978. However, the variables had no significant effect on women's participation in private training programs. The effect on the other variables was only marginal.

Upon completion of the OLS analysis the most useful explanatory variables were used in a logit regression equation to test the results obtained from our OLS regressions. It has been argued that OLS is inappropriate for estimating relationships when the dependent variable is either dichotomous or polychotomous. The logit model extends and integrates the general linear regression model for use with qualitative dependent variables that are both categorical

Table 15

Summary of OLS Runs on Participation
in Government Training, Post 1978
With Lagged Participation Variables

	Full Sample		Males		Females	
	B ^a	F statistic	B	F statistic	B	F statistic
AGE79	-.014	15.55***	-.017	13.35***	-.009	2.93*
BLACK	.101	74.89***	.092	31.18***	.111	43.84***
HISPANIC	.062	19.36***	.032	2.62	.090	20.47***
OTHERACE	-.011	0.36	.006	0.05	.023	0.81
FAMINCOME	-.003	38.36***	-.003	28.98***	-.002	9.52***
SEX	-.011	1.37	—	—	—	—
EMPLOYRATE1	.011	1.55	.014	1.16	.008	0.35
EMPLOYRATE2	.101	10.90***	.113	7.08***	.096	4.74**
MARRIED	.047	1.34	-.063	0.90	-.038	0.53
DIVORCED	-.091	3.46*	-.089	0.92	-.090	2.37
DEPENDENTS	-.058	9.82***	-.043	3.03*	-.078	7.66***
HIGHGRADE1	-.023	2.35	-.025	1.47	-.022	1.10
HIGHGRADE2	-.017	0.57	-.030	1.10	-.010	0.13
WORKEPECT	-.001	0.00	-.018	0.39	.018	0.42
NOWORK	.041	58.17***	.038	28.30***	.043	28.14***
LIVWITH1	-.024	0.82	-.048	1.55	.006	0.03
LIVWITH2	-.013	0.09	-.041	0.46	.023	0.15
LIVWITH3	-.080	9.91***	-.122	11.08***	-.035	0.97
FATHERGRAD1	-.031	7.76***	-.033	4.67**	-.029	3.39*
FATHERGRAD2	-.042	9.69***	-.042	5.08**	-.046	5.49**
MOTHERWORK1	-.011	0.77	.002	0.01	-.027	2.20
MOTHERWORK2	-.001	0.00	.013	0.44	-.016	0.64
FEMALEWK14	-.027	5.65**	-.023	2.04	-.030	3.45*
FAMILYATT	-.001	0.01	.002	0.05	-.002	0.05
REMEDIAL	.036	8.25***	.023	1.97	.053	7.57***
MOSWELFARE	.006	4.69**	.003	0.25	.007	4.69**
GOVTPRE78	.219	214.62***	.216	112.87**	.220	97.52***
PRIVPRE78	.025	0.88	.013	0.12	.042	1.21
CONSTANT	0.478		0.596		0.318	
NUMBER	6,172		3,208		2,964	
R ²	.14		.15		.13	

*F significant at .10 level.

**F significant at .05 level.

***F significant at .01 level.

^aUnstandardized coefficient.

Table 16

Summary of OLS Runs on Participation
in Private Training, Post 1978
With Lagged Participation Variables

	Full Sample		Males		Females	
	B ^a	F statistic	B	F statistic	B	F statistic
AGE79	.006	14.44***	.006	7.86***	.007	6.77***
BLACK	.002	0.13	.003	0.15	.001	0.03
HISPANIC	.001	0.03	-.005	0.37	.007	0.55
OTHERACE	.017	4.45**	.030	7.66***	.003	0.08
FAMINCOME	.001	9.26***	.001	10.85***	.0002	0.79
SEX	.003	0.41	—	—	—	—
EMPLOYRATE1	-.006	1.88	-.001	0.03	-.011	3.08*
EMPLOYRATE2	-.008	0.32	.014	0.55	-.029	2.03
MARRIED	.002	0.07	.044	2.26	.027	1.27
DIVORCED	-.017	0.61	-.029	0.51	-.013	0.22
DEPENDENTS	.012	1.94	.011	0.92	.020	2.34
HIGHGRADE1	-.011	2.88*	-.011	1.46	-.012	1.47
HIGHGRADE2	-.021	5.06**	-.009	0.47	-.031	5.39**
WORKEXPECT	-.002	0.04	.007	0.27	-.010	0.59
NOWORK	.005	4.09**	.006	4.31**	.002	0.29
LIVewith1	.007	0.30	.003	0.04	.008	0.22
LIVewith2	-.004	0.04	-.025	0.89	.016	0.33
LIVewith3	-.002	0.02	-.005	0.09	.000	0.00
FATHERGRAD1	.006	1.29	.003	0.25	.008	1.28
FATHERGRAD2	.019	9.76***	.011	1.80	.029	10.14***
MOTHERWORK1	-.010	3.10*	-.016	4.18**	-.004	0.27
MOTHERWORK2	.001	0.01	.001	0.02	.000	0.00
FEMALEWK14	.009	3.14*	.010	2.03	.010	1.70
FAMILYATT	-.003	1.52	.000	0.01	-.006	2.58
REMEDIAl	.000	0.00	.003	0.17	-.004	0.18
MOSWELFARE	-.003	4.31**	-.003	1.31	-.003	3.40*
PRIVPRE78	.024	4.04**	.037	5.05***	.009	0.28
GOVTPRE78	.013	3.82*	.015	2.83*	.010	0.94
CONSTANT	-0.903		-0.103		-0.774	
NUMBER	6,172		3,208		2,964	
R ²	.01		.02		.02	

*F significant at .10 level.

**F significant at .05 level.

***F significant at .01 level.

^aUnstandardized coefficient.

and unordered.³⁵ The maximum-likelihood method is felt by many econometricians to offer substantial gains by yielding more reliable estimators.

The multivariate logit functional form explains the probability of participation as a function of the explanatory variables as follows:

$$P_i (\text{participation}) = 1 / [1 + \exp(-X_i'B)]$$

where B is the vector of coefficients. This functional form has the appropriate property of always producing probabilities that lie within the unit interval, that is between zero and one.

Cost constraints necessitated limiting ourselves to one logit equation, using participation in a government program after January 1, 1978 as the dependent variable. This equation was selected because the primary focus was government-sponsored programs and because our variables seemed to be more useful in explaining participation in government programs.

The dependent variable used in the logit run was constructed (as in the OLS runs) as follows:

$P_i = 0$ if the respondent was a nonparticipant in any of the three program types;

$P_i = 1$ if the respondent was a nonparticipant in a government program;

$P_i = 2$ if the respondent was a participant in a government program.

The independent variables used in the regression were the same as those used in the OLS regressions with the following exceptions:

1. A variable constructed from responses to the question "what do you expect to be doing at age 35" was substituted for the variable WORKEEXPECT, work expectations in five years. This variable DOAT35 was constructed as follows:

³⁵Marc Nerlove, Univariate and Multivariate Log-Linear and Logistic Models, (Santa Monica, California: The Rand Corporation, 1973).

DOAT35-1 = 1 if response was "family only"; 0 otherwise
 DOAT35-2 = 1 if response was something other than "work or family;" 0 otherwise

We hoped that this variable might be a better explainer of individuals' long-run labor force expectations.

2. Several variables that were judged to be unimportant or insignificant were dropped (LIVEWITH, HIGHGRADE, MOTHERWORK).

The results of the estimation for participation in government training are summarized in Table 17. The logit results are consistent with the comparable OLS regression for the whole sample (see Table 12). This increases our confidence in the estimates from the OLS regressions.

The sex variable is more highly significant in the logit equation, giving greater credence to the argument that women are less likely to be participants in government programs than men, other things being equal. The substitution of the "do at age 35" variable for "work expectations in five years" had no substantial effect on participation, indicating that expected labor force participation, as we were able to measure it, appears to be unimportant in explaining decisions about government program participation.

Conclusions

At the beginning of our study we formulated several major hypotheses concerning participation in government employment and training programs. One set was related to factors that would affect participation in general and a second set was related to the nature of participation by young women. In addition, factors were tested for their effect on participation in alternative training programs in the private sector and in the military.

Based on past studies of women's participation in adult programs we expected to find that young women were less likely to participate in employment and training programs and that young women who did participate in

Table 17

Parameter Estimates from Logit Equation
on Participation in Government Training,^a Post 1978

	B coefficient	t statistic
AGE79	-.090	4.17***
BLACK	.920	10.29***
HISPANIC	.575	5.32***
OTHERACE	.040	0.25
FAMINCOME	-.149	1.93**
SEX	-.045	9.89***
EMPLOYRATE1	.109	1.47
EMPLOYRATE2	.753	3.73***
NOWORK	.347	8.68***
FATHERGRAD1	-.241	2.67***
FATHERGRAD2	-.485	3.73***
DEPENDENTS	-.433	2.45**
REMEDIAL	.225	2.52**
FEMALEWK14	-.216	2.92***
MOSWELFARE	.041	2.02**
MARRIED	-.281	0.75
DIVORCED	-1.175	1.89*
FAMILYATT	-.099	1.04
DOAT35-1	-.048	0.36
DOAT35-2	-.154	0.84
Constant		.256
$\bar{P}$		.169
Likelihood Ratio Test		810.26 (42 d.f.)
Number		1,053
Number in Reference Group (Nonparticipants in any Training)		4,935
R ²		.10

*t significant at .10 level.

**t significant at .05 level.

***t significant at .01 level.

^aComparing the probability of participation in government training against the probability of nonparticipation in any of the three training programs (government, military, private).

The logistic function was estimated by maximum likelihood techniques. The coefficients reported above are $B_i(P_i)(1-P_i)$, where P_i is indicated above for each interval. Asymptotic t-values are also shown.

programs were likely to be better qualified than their male counterparts. Our cross-tabular analysis showed equal proportions of the male and female populations having participated in government (and privately sponsored) programs. However, since other factors that affect eligibility may differ between men and women, equal proportions does not necessarily represent equitable treatment. In our regression analysis, we found some evidence to indicate that young women were less likely to be enrolled in government-sponsored employment and training programs, other things being equal. This is clearly the case for enrollment in the pre-1978 period. After January 1978, the significance of sex is not as clear. In equations that did not include participation prior to 1978 as an independent variable, the coefficient for sex was negative and significant. Once prior participation was entered into the equation, the coefficient for sex, while still negative, became insignificant. The interpretation of this finding is not obvious. On the one hand, this may mean that previous participants in programs are more adept at obtaining a slot in another program and since women are less likely to have that prior experience, they fare worse than their male counterparts. On the other hand, it may mean that sex differences in participation continue to exist and are similar in nature to those in existence prior to 1978 and the lagged variable is picking up this connection.

To the extent that it exists, differential participation by women does not seem to be related to perceptions about future participation in the labor market. None of the variables that were used to measure work expectations proved to be significant. In contrast to women who entered private or military training, women in government programs were no less likely than nonparticipants to think that a "woman's place is in the home." Therefore,

there is no evidence to indicate that women who enter government programs have expectations of greater labor force attachment than those who do not.

In general, the variables that are important in explaining participation are the same for men and for women. For the most part, the relationships are consistent with a "scraving" hypothesis rather than a "creaming" hypothesis. The probability of participation is negatively correlated with total family income and socioeconomic status (measured by father's education). It is positively correlated with prior enrollment in remedial education, number of periods of no work, the number of months on welfare (for females), and with being black or Hispanic. We found no evidence to indicate that the women who entered government programs were better qualified than their male counterparts.

The importance of minority status on program participation should not be overlooked. The fact that blacks and Hispanics are "overrepresented" in government-sponsored employment and training programs has often been attributed to the fact that minority youth are more likely to be from low-income families and to suffer from educational and work experience deficiencies. However, even when these factors are controlled for, minority status has a significant impact on participation in government programs. This lends support to the assertion of several researchers that employment opportunities for minority youth in the private sector are limited.³⁶

Government program participants differ significantly from participants in private programs. Private program participants tend to be older than the youth population in general, and to come from families with higher income and

³⁶Swinton and Morse, "The Source," and Ginsberg, Employing the Unemployed.

more education. They are much less likely to be welfare recipients. This is the reverse of the situation for government program participants.

Previous participation in a government program, however, does increase the probability of participation in private programs for males. Military enlistees, particularly men, are more similar to civilian government program enlistees. Male enlistees are more likely to come from low-income families and are less likely to come from intact families. Being a woman significantly decreases the probability of being enrolled in military training. However, being black increases the probability that a woman will enter military training (just as it increases the probability that she will enter government training), even though it does not increase the probability that a male will enter military training. Otherwise military enlistees are older and more likely to have family responsibilities than nonparticipants.

Youth who participate in government programs are primarily enrolled in summer employment programs. Very few receive either skills training or support services. Although these young people may develop positive work habits and become more familiar with the world of work, they are getting very little in the way of occupational or skills training. In the short run, the major benefits would be income transfers and possibly decreased school dropout rates. An assessment of the possible long-run benefits of these programs is beyond the scope of this study.

These findings have a number of implications for the new JTPA program. While youth participation in past programs has generally reflected the eligibility criteria, with little evidence of "creaming," this may change under JTPA with the new emphasis on skills training and direct placement. On the application (demand) side, the elimination of stipends may change the

composition of the pool for training since money was cited as the major factor for participation in the past. On the selection (supply) side, the shift toward direct placement may cause program sponsors to be more selective in order to increase their placement rates. This could result in more "creaming" among the youth population.

The effect of the program changes on young women could be significant. Past research on adult programs has shown that adult women have been underrepresented in CETA programs, and have been overassigned to programs that do not integrate them into the labor market. The results of this study show some evidence of sex differences in participation among youth but the differences are small and only marginally significant. If youth become more closely integrated into the adult programs, the differential treatment that has existed in the adult program may affect youth. This tendency could be exacerbated by the Reagan administration's proposed elimination of the WIN program. Our findings indicate that welfare dependency increases the probability of participation in government employment and training programs for young women. This may be due to the fact that AFDC recipients have been required to register for WIN and, thereby, are more likely to be exposed to information about all government programs. Without WIN, outreach efforts to young welfare recipients may diminish, especially if program sponsors feel this is a high risk group.

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APPENDIX A

- Table A-1: NLS Youth Sample: Highest Grade Completed, 1979, By Race and Sex
- Table A-2: NLS Youth Sample: Highest Grade Completed, 1979, By Race and Sex, For Enrollees in Government Programs After 1978
- Table A-3: Percent of NLS Youth Sample Having Taken at Least One Remedial Education Course by Race and Sex
- Table A-4: Living Arrangements of NLS Sample by Race and Sex, 1979
- Table A-5: Marital Status of NLS Respondents, 1979, by Race and Sex
- Table A-6: Percent of NLS Youth Sample With Children by Race and Sex, 1979
- Table A-7: NLS Youth Sample: Number of Months Enrolled in Government Training Program by Race and Sex, 1978
- Table A-8: NLS Youth Sample: Number of Months Enrolled in Military Training Program by Race and Sex
- Table A-9: NLS Youth Sample: Number of Months Enrolled in Private Vocational Training by Race and Sex, 1978
- Table A-10: Summary of OLS Runs on Participation in Government Training, Pre 1978
- Table A-11: Summary of OLS Runs on Participation in Private Training Programs, Pre 1978

Table A-1

NLS Youth Sample
Highest Grade Completed, 1979,
by Race and Sex

	Males	Females
<u>White</u>		
Less Than High School	44.0%	38.1%
High School	33.3	35.5
More Than High School	22.7	26.4
<u>Black</u>		
Less Than High School	54.0	46.4
High School	32.6	31.7
More Than High School	13.5	21.9
<u>Hispanic</u>		
Less Than High School	61.6	61.7
High School	23.1	21.4
More Than High School	15.3	16.9
<u>Other</u>		
Less Than High School	50.1	52.5
High School	29.7	24.1
More Than High School	20.2	23.3
<u>Total Sample</u>		
Less Than High School	49.2	44.5
High School	31.5	31.8
More Than High School	19.2	23.8

Table A-2

NLS Youth Sample
 Highest Grade Completed, 1979, By Race and Sex,
 For Enrollees in Government Programs After 1978

	Males	Females
<u>Whites</u>		
Less Than High School	78.6%	62.5%
High School	15.1	25.9
More Than High School	6.3	11.6
<u>Blacks</u>		
Less Than High School	84.4	61.9
High School	12.1	26.9
More Than High School	3.4	11.3
<u>Hispanic</u>		
Less Than High School	78.7	80.4
High School	18.4	11.9
More Than High School	2.9	7.7
<u>Other</u>		
Less Than High School	80.4	69.4
High School	8.9	27.8
More Than High School	10.7	2.8

Table A-3

Percent of the NLS Youth Sample Having Taken
At Least One Remedial Education Course
by Race and Sex

	Males	Females
White	10.9%	6.3%
Black	20.2	15.7
Hispanic	23.6	19.3
Other	12.4	7.2
Total	15.0	10.4
Total Sample	12.7	

Table A-4
Living Arrangements of NLS Sample
By Race and Sex, 1979

	Males	Females
<u>With Parents</u>		
White	76.3%	64.2%
Black	88.5	79.5
Hispanic	81.4	75.7
Other	75.7	62.5
<u>On Own^a</u>		
White	17.8	30.3
Black	7.4	16.5
Hispanic	15.8	27.2
Other	17.6	32.4
<u>Communal</u>		
White	5.9	5.5
Black	4.1	4.0
Hispanic	2.8	2.1
Other	6.7	5.1

^aIncludes individuals who were married.

Table A-5
Marital Status of NLS Respondents, 1979,
by Race and Sex

	Males				Females				Total
	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	
Married									
n	255	46	69	41	513	111	140	79	1,254
%	(8.5)	(3.4)	(9.6)	(9.1)	(17.1)	(8.1)	(19.1)	(17.7)	(11.3)
Widowed									
n	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
%	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.1)	(0.0)	(0.0)
Divorced									
n	7	1	6	1	44	9	4	7	79
%	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.8)	(0.2)	(1.5)	(0.7)	(0.5)	(1.6)	(0.7)
Separated									
n	9	7	6	1	50	28	14	6	121
%	(0.3)	(0.5)	(0.8)	(0.2)	(1.7)	(2.1)	(1.9)	(1.3)	(1.1)
Never Married									
n	2,720	1,310	638	407	2,396	1,216	575	354	9,616
%	(90.9)	(96.0)	(88.7)	(90.4)	(79.8)	(89.1)	(78.3)	(79.4)	(86.9)

Table A-6

Percent of the NLS Youth Sample With Children
By Race and Sex, 1979

	Males	Females
White	5.5%	12.8%
Black	9.3	25.0
Hispanic	8.1	18.7
Other	6.7	17.3
Total Sample	6.9	17.0

Table A-7

NLS Youth Sample
 Number of Months Enrolled in
 Government Training Program
 By Race and Sex, 1978

Number of Months	Males	Females
<u>White</u>		
1 - 2	36.4%	25.0%
3 - 4	18.2	41.7
5 - 12	18.2	25.0
12 or More	27.3	8.3
<u>Black</u>		
1 - 2	41.7	63.6
3 - 4	25.0	9.1
5 - 12	25.0	22.7
12 or More	8.3	4.5
<u>Hispanic</u>		
1 - 2	18.2	16.7
3 - 4	36.4	33.3
5 - 12	36.4	16.7
12 or More	9.1	33.3
<u>Other</u>		
1 - 2	100.0	25.0
3 - 4	—	50.0
5 - 12	—	25.0
12 or More	—	—

Table A-8
NLS Youth Sample
Number of Months Enrolled in
Military Training Program
By Race and Sex

Number of Months	Males	Females
<u>White</u>		
1 - 2	45.9%	46.2%
3 - 4	17.8	21.3
5 - 12	28.5	30.1
12 or More	7.8	2.4
<u>Black</u>		
1 - 2	61.4	73.2
3 - 4	22.9	11.0
5 - 12	11.1	14.6
12 or More	4.6	1.2
<u>Hispanic</u>		
1 - 2	59.5	50.0
3 - 4	19.0	21.4
5 - 12	14.3	28.6
12 or More	7.1	—
<u>Other</u>		
1 - 2	49.4	58.8
3 - 4	18.2	8.8
5 - 12	29.9	29.4
12 or More	2.6	2.9

Table A-9

NLS Youth Sample
 Number of Months Enrolled in
 Private Vocational Training
 By Race and Sex, 1978

Number of Months	Males	Females
<u>White</u>		
1 - 2	12.8%	19.2%
3 - 4	12.3	6.7
5 - 12	14.1	24.6
12 or More	60.8	49.6
<u>Black</u>		
1 - 2	24.1	13.7
3 - 4	13.0	13.7
5 - 12	7.4	21.9
12 or More	55.6	50.7
<u>Hispanic</u>		
1 - 2	9.7	30.8
3 - 4	19.4	15.4
5 - 12	16.1	15.4
12 or More	54.8	38.5
<u>Other</u>		
1 - 2	10.5	17.4
3 - 4	7.9	17.4
5 - 12	26.3	26.1
12 or More	55.3	39.1

Table A-10

Summary of OLS Runs on Participation
in Government Training, Pre 1978

	Full Sample		Males		Females	
	B ^a	F statistic	B	F statistic	B	F statistic
AGE79	.029	95.75***	.030	54.36***	.029	42.94***
BLACK	.104	111.26**	.112	61.73***	.092	45.21***
HISPANIC	.091	18.36**	.048	7.54***	.058	12.39***
OTHERACE	.015	0.96	.010	0.21	.025	1.39
FAMINCOME	-.001	13.96***	-.001	1.78	-.002	16.59**
SEX	-.022	7.29***	—	—	—	—
EMPLOYRATE1	.010	1.81	-.003	0.06	.024	4.79**
EMPLOYRATE2	.048	3.43*	.085	5.23**	.041	0.01
MARRIED	-.050	2.09	-.047	0.66	-.044	1.08
DIVORCED	-.067	2.58	-.098	1.47	-.073	2.32
DEPENDENTS	.031	3.92**	-.017	0.62	.093	15.88**
HIGHGRADE1	-.005	0.14	-.021	1.34	.011	0.39
HIGHGRADE2	.021	1.52	-.016	0.41	.050	4.47**
WORKEEXPECT	.004	0.05	-.015	0.33	.023	0.99
NOWORK	.020	20.12***	.029	22.05**	.008	1.29
LIVewith1	.049	4.75**	.008	0.06	.085	7.70***
LIVewith2	.049	1.80	.021	0.15	.070	1.99
LIVewith3	-.005	0.04	-.061	3.61*	.048	2.65
FATHERGRAD1	-.011	1.37	-.032	5.75**	.009	0.50
FATHERGRAD2	-.034	8.60**	-.053	10.46***	-.013	0.64
MOTHERWORK1	.011	1.05	.014	0.81	.009	0.35
MOTHERWORK2	.012	0.92	.016	0.83	.006	0.11
FEMALEWK14	-.032	10.88***	-.040	8.14***	-.024	3.19*
FAMILYATT	-.012	6.28**	-.015	4.56**	-.011	2.47
REMEDI AL	.026	5.89**	.026	3.33*	.024	2.33
MOSWELFARE	-.002	0.87	-.008	2.52	-.003	1.07
CONSTANT	-0.395		-0.328		-0.482	
NUMBER	6,172		3,208		2,964	
R ²	.09		.10		.10	

*F significant at .10 level.

**F significant at .05 level.

***F significant at .01 level.

^aUnstandardized coefficient.

Table A-11

Summary of OLS Runs on Participation
in Private Training Programs, Pre 1978

	Full Sample		Males		Females	
	B ^a	F statistic	B	F statistic	B	F statistic
AGE79	.015	76.97***	.015	45.82***	.015	32.95**
BLACK	-.014	6.59**	-.016	4.30**	-.014	2.94*
HISPANIC	-.006	0.68	.004	0.14	-.014	2.02
OTHERACE	-.009	1.08	.003	0.05	-.021	2.72*
FAMINCOME	.0001	0.44	.0004	2.57	.0002	0.69
SEX	-.0004	0.01	—	—	—	—
EMPLOYRATE1	-.003	0.63	-.004	0.43	-.004	0.31
EMPLOYRATE2	-.010	0.51	-.018	0.75	-.005	0.06
MARRIED	.014	0.51	.075	5.56**	-.024	0.91
DIVORCED	-.038	2.54	-.079	3.17*	-.034	1.40
DEPENDENTS	.001	0.01	-.026	4.85**	.028	4.23**
HIGHGRADE1	.020	7.74***	.018	3.14*	.020	3.55*
HIGHGRADE2	-.016	2.56	-.021	2.21	-.014	0.94
WORKEXPECT	-.002	0.05	.014	1.03	-.020	2.10
NOWORK	-.001	0.18	-.003	0.62	.001	0.06
LIVWITH1	.011	0.68	.022	1.42	-.002	0.01
LIVWITH2	.045	4.84**	.062	4.65**	.028	0.93
LIVWITH3	.002	0.02	.004	0.05	-.001	0.01
FATHERGRAD1	-.004	0.63	-.004	0.33	-.005	0.42
FATHERGRAD2	-.011	2.80*	-.015	2.84*	-.007	0.48
MOTHERWORK1	-.001	0.03	-.001	0.02	.001	0.01
MOTHERWORK2	.003	0.20	.005	0.33	.001	0.02
FEMALEWK14	.005	0.73	.000	0.00	.009	1.16
FAMILYATT	-.005	2.75*	-.006	2.88	-.003	0.75
REMEDIAL	.005	0.81	.008	0.99	.002	0.04
MOSWELFARE	-.0003	0.05	-.006	4.08**	.0001	0.00
CONSTANT	-0.219		-0.242		-0.197	
NUMBER	6,172		3,208		2,964	
R ²	.04		.04		.04	

*F significant at .10 level.

**F significant at .05 level.

***F significant at .01 level.

^aUnstandardized coefficient.

APPENDIX B

1. Summary of The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, as Amended
2. The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, as Amended in 1978 (Public Law 95-524)
3. Operational Structure of Employment and Training Programs to Serve Youth (table)
4. Estimated Number and Distribution of Youth Enrollees in All CETA Programs, FY 1980 (table)
5. Federal Employment Programs Serving Youth: Fiscal Year 1980 (table)
6. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act: Authorized Funding and Appropriations, Fiscal Year 1982 (table)

SUMMARY OF
THE COMPREHENSIVE EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ACT
OF 1973, AS AMENDED

Title I establishes a nationwide program of comprehensive employment and training services (including training, employment, counseling, testing, and placement) administered by prime sponsors which, for the most part, are States and units of general local government of 100,000 or more population.

Title II authorizes a program of developmental transitional public service employment and other manpower services in areas with 6.5 percent or higher unemployment for 3 consecutive months.

Title III provides for nationally sponsored and supervised training and job placement programs for such special groups as youth, offenders, older workers, persons of limited English-speaking ability, Indians, migrant and seasonal farmworkers, and others with particular labor market disadvantages, as well as research, demonstration and evaluation programs to be administered by the Secretary of Labor. Monies were also provided in Fiscal 1974 for the Skill Training Improvement Program (STIP) and the Youth Employment Demonstration Program.

Title IV provides the authorization for the Job Corps, a program of intensive education, training, and counseling for disadvantaged youth, primarily in a residential setting.

Title V establishes a National Commission for Manpower Policy, an advisory group that has been assigned responsibilities for examining the Nation's manpower needs and goals and suggesting to the President and Congress particular means of dealing with them.

Title VI authorizes a temporary emergency program of public service employment to help ease the impact of high unemployment.

Title VII contains general provisions, applicable to all titles, including definitions, conditions of work and training, prohibitions against discrimination and political activities, and administrative procedures for the orderly management of programs under the act.

Title VIII establishes the Young Adult Conservation Corps, which provides employment and other benefits to youth who would not otherwise be productively employed. Participants are enrolled for a period of service during which they engage in useful conservation work and assist in completing other projects of a public nature on Federal and non-federal public lands and waters.

SOURCE: 1978 Employment and Training Report of the President (forthcoming).

Taken from: National Commission for Manpower Policy, CETA: An Analysis of the Issues (Washington, D.C., 1978), pp. 61-62.

COMPREHENSIVE EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ACT, AS AMENDED IN 1978
(PUBLIC LAW 95-524)

Title I. Administrative Provisions. Organizational and general provisions applicable to the entire act; consolidates the procedures for planning, reporting, auditing, and other administrative requirements; authorized appropriations generally for fiscal years 1979 through 1982.

Title II. Comprehensive Employment and Training Services. Comprehensive work and training activities contained previously in titles I and II. Authorizes institutional and on-the-job training, work experience, job search assistance, and supportive services. Also contains a separate counterstructural public service employment program, with new jobholders limited to economically disadvantaged persons who have been unemployed 15 of the last 20 weeks or who are receiving or are part of a family receiving welfare benefits.

Title III. Special National Programs and Activities. Special target group programs for Indians and other native Americans, migrant and seasonal farmworkers, ex-offenders, older workers, displaced homemakers, women, and the handicapped. Welfare reform demonstration projects included for the first time. Continues programs of research and development, technical assistance, and labor market information.

Title IV. Youth Programs. Provides for Job Corps residential training program; summer program for disadvantaged youth; and youth programs first authorized by the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 (YEDPA) except the Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC), which

continues in title VIII. New youth programs are continued only through fiscal year 1980 because of demonstration aspects; YACC is authorized through 1982.

Title V. National Commission for Employment Policy. Authorizes an advisory commission with both public and private members to be appointed by the President.

Title VI. Public Service Employment Program. Authorizes PSE programs at levels adjusted for the national unemployment rate. New PSE jobholders must be unemployed for 10 of last 12 weeks and have family income at or below the BLS lower living standard budget or received (or be a member of a family receiving) public assistance 10 of the last 12 weeks.

Title VII. Private Sector Initiative Program (PSIP). Two-year demonstration of alternative approaches to obtaining greater involvement of private sector in employment and training of the disadvantaged. Established Private Industry Councils (PIC's) with representatives from industry, business, organized labor, community-based organizations, and educational institutions to participate with prime sponsors in improving access for all CETA participants to private sector jobs.

Title VIII. Young Adult Conservation Corps. Authorizes the year-round corps open to both disadvantaged and nondisadvantaged youth, 16 to 23 years old, for conservation work in national parks, forests, and other public lands.

Taken from: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, and U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1980), p. 21.

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Operational Structure of Employment and Training Programs to Serve Youth

	YACC	YIEPP	YCCIP	YETP	SYEP	
	Young Adult Conservation Corps	Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects	Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects	Youth Employment and Training Programs	Summer Youth Employment Program	Job Corps
Target population	• all social and economic backgrounds • unemployed, but preference given to the structurally unemployed • age 18-23 inclusive • citizens, permanent residents or lawful refugees or parolees	• economically disadvantaged as defined by Office of Management and Budget Guidelines • dropouts or dropout prone • age 16-19 • structurally unemployed	• out-of-school • unemployed • age 16-19	• economically disadvantaged: 85% or less of the Bureau of Labor Statistics lower living standard • unemployed or structurally unemployed • age 18-23, with 14 & 15 year olds under special authority • in-school and out-of-school youths	• economically disadvantaged: 70% or less of the Bureau of Labor Statistics lower living standard • age 14 through 21	• economically disadvantaged as defined by Office of Management and Budget Guidelines • age 16 through 21 • living in an environment which impairs performance • persons on probation or parole
Constraints	• enrollment not to exceed 12 months • dropping out of school to enter program is prohibited	• projects to last not less than 6 months or more than 9 • unlimited attendance over the high school enrollment period	• enrollment not to exceed 12 months	• none specifically stated	• no enrollment in program activities beyond September 30 of each year	• age constraints waived for the handicapped • two years enrollment plus waivers
Main nature of activity	• labor intensive • similar to activities of persons engaged in seasonal and part-time employment • academic credit potentially may be awarded • on-the-job training	• minimum wage job if and only if a person returns to school • part-time in-school and full-time during summer	• labor intensive • work experience with school-related credits, including post-secondary education	• combined employment, community service, training and supportive services linked with school attendance and certification where possible	• on-the-job training • job exploration	• residential and non-residential education and work experience
Supplementary services	• transportation • lodging • subsistence • medical treatment	• apprenticeship • counseling • medical treatment • transportation • day care • institutional training	• coordination with school systems and employment services • job training • skill development	• training, education and labor market information • literacy and bilingual training • job sampling • GED certification • transportation • child care • apprenticeship • institutional training • on-the-job training • job restructuring • placement services	• academic credit for work experience • vocational counseling and occupational information	• physical rehabilitation • travel and leave allowances • GED certification • readjustment allowances • residential subsistence • counseling and testing • required participation in Center maintenance • recreation
Designed impact on participants	• secure unsubsidized employment by giving experience in various occupational skills	• high school graduation or its equivalent, leading to improved post-program employment, education, or both	• secure unsubsidized employment through work experience, skill training, and community service	• reduce structural unemployment and secure suitable unsubsidized employment	• obtain unsubsidized employment and develop maximum occupational potential	• improve future employment and earnings and educational possibilities

Source: "Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977," Public Law 95-59, 95th Congress, August 5, 1977 and "Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Amendments of 1978," Public Law 95-520, 95th Congress, October 27, 1978.

Notes: A complete catalog of programs to aid youth is contained in Lawrence, Johnson and Associates, Inc., *Catalog of Federal Youth Programs*, Division of Youth Activities, Office of Youth Development, Office of Human Development, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C.

Taken from: Ernst W. Stromsdorfer, "The Effectiveness of Youth Programs: An Analysis of the Historical Antecedents of Current Youth Initiatives," in *Youth Employment and Public Policy*, eds. Bernard E. Anderson and Isabel V. Sawhill (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1980), pp. 94-99

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Estimated Number and Distribution of Youth Enrollees in All CETA Programs, FY 1980

Type of Program	Enrollment Period				
	FY 1980	Quarters of FY 1980			
		Oct.-Dec. 1979	Jan.-Mar. 1980	Apr.-June 1980	July-Sept. 1980
<u>All CETA Programs (total)</u>					
Estimated number	1,928,400	281,900	301,300	303,500	1,041,700
Percent	100	100	100	100	100
<u>CETA Programs Specifically Targeted Towards Youth</u>					
Estimated number	1,123,400	116,300	94,100	81,200	830,800
Percent	58	41	31	27	80
<u>Nonsummer Youth Programs</u>					
Estimated number	367,000	116,300	94,100	81,900	74,700
Percent	19	41	31	27	7
<u>Summer Youth Programs 1/</u>					
Estimated number	756,500	*	*	(400)	756,100
Percent	39	*	*	-	73
<u>Adult-Oriented Programs 2/</u>					
Estimated number	804,900	165,700	207,200	221,200	210,900
Percent	42	59	69	73	20
<u>Enrollees Less Than 22 Years of Age 3/</u>					
Estimated number	224,000	44,700	55,200	61,900	62,200
Percent	12	16	18	20	6
<u>Enrollees 22 Years of Age or Over</u>					
Estimated number	580,900	121,000	152,000	159,300	148,700
Percent	30	43	50	52	14

1/ Beginning with FY 1980, due to a change in the CLMS interview schedule, data tabulations indicate that virtually all enrollees in summer youth programs entered CETA during the last quarter of the fiscal year (July-September). In actuality, many of these enrollees entered summer programs during the third quarter of the fiscal year -- primarily in June, the typical "start-up" month for summer programs.

2/ These programs provide the major focus for CLMS Report No. 14. However, detailed data for a subset of the enrollees in adult-oriented programs -- those younger than 22 -- are included in this report (i.e., CLMS Report No. 13).

3/ The estimated number of new youth enrollees (age < 22) in adult-oriented programs, when added to the estimated number of new enrollees in CETA programs specifically targeted towards youth, equals the total number of youth enrollees which are the major focus of this report. This total is referred to as enrollment in "CETA Programs Serving Youth."

Taken from: WESTAT, "Characteristics of Youth Enrollees Who Entered CETA Programs During Fiscal Year 1980 (October 1979 through September 1980)," Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey Report No. 13 (January 1982), p. 39.

FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMS SERVING YOUTH^a: FISCAL YEAR 1980

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Program	Funds Serving Youth (in Millions of Dollars)		Percent of Total Program Funds Serving Youth ^b
	Budget Authority	Outlays	
Title II-B and C	1,027	974	50
Title II-D	297	383	20
Title III	159	101	30
National Programs	—	—	15
Migrant Programs	—	—	40
Native American Programs	—	—	40
Title IV			
Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP)	134	138	100
Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Project (YIEPP)	0	94	100
Youth Employment and Training Projects (YETP)	692	636	100
Summer Youth Employment Program (SYEP)	609	720	100
Job Corps	416	489	100
Title VI	325	349	20
Title VIII			
Youth Adult Conservation Corps (YACC)	250	233	100 ^d

Youth Conservation Corps (YCC)	55	55	100
Work Incentive (WIN)	55	54	15
Non-CETA Targeted Jobs Tax Credit (TJTC)	—	—	—
TOTAL	4,019	4,226	

SOURCE: Congressional Budget Office estimates.

- a. Unless otherwise specified, youth are defined as persons aged 21 and below.
- b. Estimates assume that the proportion of program funds going to youth is the same as the proportion of youth enrolled in the program.

Taken from: Congressional Budget Office, Youth Employment and Education:
Possible Federal Approaches (Washington, D.C.: Government
Printing Office, 1980), p. 10.

COMPREHENSIVE EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ACT: AUTHORIZED FUNDING AND APPROPRIATIONS, FISCAL YEAR 1982 (in millions of dollars)

Program	Authorized Funding	Appropriations	Program Description	Service Year Costs
Title II-B,C	1,431	1,152	Training programs (61 percent of all participants) and work experience (33 percent) for persons of all ages. Title II-B participants must be economically disadvantaged and unemployed, underemployed, or in school.	N/A
Title III	219	179	Various programs to serve groups with special labor-market problems, including migrant farm workers, Native Americans, "displaced" homemakers newly joining or re-entering the job market, youth, and older workers.	N/A
Title IV-A (YETP)	576	192	Various projects, some developed cooperatively with local school districts, primarily for low-income youth aged 14 to 21. Participants are enrolled in career employment experience (42 percent), work experience (20 percent), training (13 percent), and transition services (24 percent).	4,700
Title IV-B (Job Corps)	628	586	Intensive training and rehabilitation for economically disadvantaged youth aged 14 to 21, mostly in residential centers.	14,100
Title IV-C (SYEP)	766	640	Nine-week summer work projects for economically disadvantaged youth aged 14 to 21.	980
Title VII (PSIP)	275	230	Provides for Private Industry Councils to work with prime sponsors to increase private-sector participation in CETA activities.	N/A
CETA Program Total	3,895	2,978		

N/A = Not available.

SOURCES: Funding authorization is from the Omnibus Reconciliation Act. Appropriations are from H.J. Resolution 370 (P.L. 97-92), as interpreted by the agency budget officer. Program description is from Congressional Budget Office, Youth Employment and Education: Possible Federal Approaches (July 1980), p. 11. Service year costs are estimates from the Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration.

Taken from: Congressional Budget Office, Improving Youth Employment Prospects: Issues and Options (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, February 1982), p. 49.

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